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In this issue

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WILLIAM L. SLAYTON

Nonproperty Taxation and the Schools
ALBERT ALFORD

JUNE 1962

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Public responsibility for education

INERTIA is our greatest danger today. We cannot continue just to rock along—merely to hope for the best—to remain complacent. In order to be the best we must demand the best, and we must give the best. In concrete terms this means that every individual and institution in our society has a job to do for American education.

For the individual, that job is the acceptance of his responsibility as a voter and taxpayer. It means concern with the problems of education in his community, his State, and his Nation.

For parents of school-age children, it means, in addition, closer study of the school curriculum to see that it meets their children's needs and abilities. It also means the enforcement of scholastic discipline in the home.

For business, industry, and the professions, it means a heavier investment in education—through scholarships, work-study programs, endowment funds, and financial support of basic and applied research.

One of these activities is philanthropic. They are all geared to preserve our Nation's strength and to guarantee its future.

ABRAHAM RIBICOFF

From an address, "America and a Free World," delivered before the third general session of the Conference on the Ideals of American Freedom and the International Dimensions of Education, Washington, D.C., March 28, 1962.

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE • ABRAHAM RIBICOFF, *Secretary*

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Technical reports centers

Through the joint efforts of the National Science Foundation and the Department of Commerce, United States scientists and engineers will soon have ready access to unclassified and technical reports of research conducted by the U.S. Government. These two agencies have selected 12 universities and libraries to act as regional technical report centers to receive copies of unclassified Government reports. The centers will keep cumulative library collections of technical reports and bibliographic and reference publications, and will provide reference service on the material, interlibrary loans, and photocopies to the general public. The Office of Technical Services of the Department will direct the planning and operating of the system; the Office of Science Information Service of NSF will help finance the system and give other assistance as needed.

Most of the reports will come from the Department of Defense, the National Aeronautics and Space Administration, and the Atomic Energy Commission. These agencies produce about 90 percent of the Government's unclassified technical reports.

Centers were chosen on the basis of geographic distribution; nearness to scientific, industrial, and educational centers; accessibility; ability to cooperate; and experience in handling scientific and technical material. They are Carnegie Library, Pittsburgh; Columbia University; Georgia Institute of Technology; John Crerar Library, Chicago; Library of Congress, Washington; Linda Hall Library, Kansas City; Massachusetts Institute of Technology; Southern Methodist University; University of California, Berkeley; University of California, Los Angeles; University of Colorado; and the University of Washington.

ETV libraries

A grant from title VII of the National Defense Education Act will help to set up a national and two regional instructional television libraries: The National Instructional Television Library, the Great Plains Regional Instructional Television Library, and the Northeastern Instructional Television Library. The National Library will expedite the exchange of television instructional courses among schools, colleges and universities, and educational television stations across the Nation. The regional libraries are preparing courses on videotape for educational institutions. The Great Plains Library should have courses ready by the next academic year for use by educational institutions in the great plains States; the Northeastern Library by January 1963 for educational institutions along the Eastern Seaboard.

Information on the libraries can be obtained by writing to these addresses:

National Instructional Television Library, National Educational Television and Radio Center, 10 Columbus Circle, New York, N.Y., Attention: Edward Cohen, Acting Director.

Great Plains Regional Instructional Television Library, University of Nebraska, Lincoln 8, Nebr., Attention: Paul H. Schupbach, Director.

Northeastern Instructional Television Library, Eastern Educational Network, 238 Main Street, Cambridge, Mass., Attention: Michael Ambrosino, Executive Director.

The young child

The eighth edition of the ever-popular "Your Child from 1 to 6," a publication of the Children's Bureau of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, is now in print. From it, parents can obtain information on the normal growth pattern of the young child. During the years 1 to 6, as the publication points out, the child grows more than he will at any other time in his life and his parents are the greatest single influence in his life. The parents' knowledge of when to expect changes and what changes to expect will make these years easier on the child and on them.

Sections of the publication discuss the child from 1 to 3, 4-year-olds, 5-year-olds (including preparation of the child for school), and special problems, such as the effects of moving and hospitalization. One section advises parents on the care of a sick child and lists common communicable diseases, their symptoms, and what to do when these symptoms appear.

"Your Child from 1 to 6," Children's Bureau Publication No. 30–1962, is available from the Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D.C., for 20 cents a copy.

Peace Corps expansion

Congress has authorized an appropriation of $63.8 million for the Peace Corps for fiscal year 1963. Of this amount, $32.4 million would be used to finance projects already in operation or agreed to; $31.4 million for new programs.

As of May, the Corps had 739 volunteers at work and 486 volunteers in training for work in 13 countries (Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Ghana, India, Malaya, Nigeria, Pakistan, Philippines, Sierra Leone, Tanganyika, Thailand, and West Indies (St. Lucia)). If funds are appropriated, the Corps will, by the end of its natural year, August 31, have in training another 1,877 volunteers for these countries and still another 2,000 volunteers in training for service in 26 other countries in Asia, Africa, Central America, and South America, that have asked for assistance.

ETV home viewers

Regular home viewers of educational television are faithful and satisfied, a survey made by the Institute for Communications Research at Stanford University has found. As many as one-fourth of the people with television sets in a community having educational television watch ETV regularly and most of these viewers find it more interesting than commercial television.

The survey found that all types of people watch ETV, but the average ETV viewer has more education than the commercial TV viewer, he reads more, is more active in civic life, and earns more money. Viewers who prefer commercial TV said they want entertainment not education, but the survey found that after exposure to ETV many people also find it "fun" and they include some ETV programs among the programs they watch.

The survey was conducted in the late spring of 1961 and included 30,000 telephone calls and 2,000 home visits to the audience of stations of a State ETV network, two community-supported noncommercial stations, a station licensed to a school district, one licensed to a university, and a UHF station in a VHF market.

The final results of the survey will be published as a book within a year. The survey was financed in part by the Office of Education.

Length of school year

Last month *School Life* carried a news note on the length of the school year in 52 nations which said that schoolchildren in the United States have a comparatively short school year. This information came from an advanced release on a UNESCO publication "The Organization of the School Year—A Comparative Study." Since the May issue went to press we have checked the publication itself and find that, while it is true that of the 52 nations represented, 37 report a school year of more than 180 days, 9 of less than 180, and 6—including the United States—of 180, data are not comparable. Nations did not use the same basis for reporting. Monaco, for instance, in reporting a school year of 240 days included Sundays and holidays (minus these its year is about 175 days).

The primary purpose of "Organization of the School Year—A Comparative Study" is to inform those who wish to visit schools in various countries of the dates schools are open.

National language needs

The old charge that the United States is a nation of one-tongued people is beginning to fall, but the Nation still has far to go before it can be called a nation of linguists. What the United States needs now, as far as language study goes, is clearcut national goals.

These are a few of the conclusions contained in the third and latest edition of "The National Interest and Foreign Languages," a study written at the request of the U.S. National Commission for UNESCO by William Riley Parker, distinguished service professor of English at Indiana University and former head of the language development program of the Office of Education.

In "The National Interest and Foreign Languages," Dr. Parker surveys language study in the United States as it is today and ventures some predictions on what it may become. In describing language study as he finds it, Dr. Parker reports that the effect of the National Defense Education Act is strong and widespread. He also finds that interest in beginning language study at an early age is growing and that revolutionary teaching methods, such as the language laboratory, are being used more and more. In his predictions, Dr. Parker says that the Nation will have a national language foundation similar to the National Science Foundation, that the audiolingual method of teaching will be generally adopted, that the study of Latin and Greek will revive, 8- and 10-year sequences of foreign language study will become common in the public schools, foreign language high schools will be established in many large cities, colleges and universities will offer 40 to 50 foreign languages, and that language learning will begin as early as kindergarten or first grade.

"The National Interest and Foreign Languages" (Department of State Publication 7324) is for sale for $1 a copy from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D.C.

In a special art room, well lighted and well equipped, students work with a variety of art media at painting, sculpturing, weaving, modeling, and carving.

Facilities for art instruction

JAMES L. TAYLOR

Through art instruction many schools, both elementary and secondary, are making it possible for their pupils to have experiences which develop their creative talents. In their art classes, pupils are becoming aware of the world around them and learning to express what they see, feel, and think in an interesting and satisfying way. But children in many other schools are denied the opportunity for similar experiences or are offered them under unsatisfactory conditions simply because officials have not been able to provide the space and facilities necessary for a good art program.

Now with school buildings going up in all parts of the country, officials who have long recognized the values of art in the curriculum are making careful provision for it in their construction plans. Many of them have turned to the Office of Education for information. Here Mr. Taylor answers some of their questions about the space and facilities needed for a good program. He has drawn on many sources: An Office of Education survey, in 1960, of art facilities in 95 public elementary and 180 secondary schools identified by State education agencies as having a good art program; his own observation in the field; discussions with school administrators, art teachers, supervisors, architects, and school building specialists; and current literature on the subject.

Mr. Taylor, specialist in planning school buildings, came to the Office of Education in 1951 after years of service in public education. He is the author or coauthor of seven Office publications on the functional planning of school buildings. He is now president of the National Council of Schoolhouse Construction, which has members in all States and Canada.

ADEQUATE physical facilities can do much to promote good teaching practices in all phases of the curriculum. They are particularly significant in the field of art, because of the flexibility of the program and the special requirements for space, equipment, and supplies. For the same reason, facilities for art should be functionally planned and designed for adaptability to a changing program. But before architects can plan and design functional facilities for art, they should understand the school's and the community's basic philosophy of art instruction, and should have the educational specifications for the program to be offered. They should, for example, have information about the activities to be carried on, media to be used, techniques of instruction, number and age of pupils to be served, types of furniture and equipment to be used, and the space required.

Because the staff of the local school and the community

In a regular classroom that is equipped for art instruction elementary school pupils work with finger paints, clay, wood, papier mache, chalk, and water color.

representatives who use art facilities know better than anyone else what their requirements are, school administrators, today more than at any other time in history, are organizing teachers and lay citizens to assist in the functional planning of school facilities. Certainly art teachers and supervisors should serve on the committee determining requirements for art facilities, and they should be heard when decisions are made on whether elementary school art will be taught in special rooms or in the regular classrooms, whether secondary school art will be taught in one general purpose art room, several special art rooms, or a combination of both types. In short, they should have a part in drafting the educational specifications of art rooms.

The educational specifications for an art room should include pertinent information and detailed statements on (1) the philosophy of the art program, (2) type and size of the school and community, (3) enrollments in art classes, (4) description of the art program, (5) space needed and a list of the equipment necessary, and (6) other pertinent information which will be helpful to architects and designers.

With this information architects, builders, and school officials, working together, can plan and design art facilities that meet the basic requirements for location, space, furniture and equipment, plumbing and other built-in facilities, storage and display, audiovisual aids, environmental conditioning and finishes, and outdoor areas.

Location.—The position of art rooms in the floor plan may be determined to some extent by the type of school plant or structure. In both elementary and secondary schools, art rooms should be located for convenient access to related areas and exits to the grounds.

A first floor location, with a door or sliding partitions leading to outdoor classrooms or extended grounds and community resources, makes it easy for pupils and teachers to get outside without disturbing others as much as they would in descending stairs and passing through corridors. Since art classes, both elementary and secondary, make field trips and use community resources such as birds, trees, flowers, and commercial products, planners and designers should consider their urgent need for convenient exits. In locating art rooms in the floor plan, they should also consider the importance of natural light. Teachers almost invariably prefer the traditional northern exposure for art rooms, but in some parts of the country they prefer other exposures because of the heating problem and the depressing effect of dark days on the creativity of pupils.

Space required.—In an elementary school the space required will be determined by the type of room to be used: whether it will be a regular classroom, as it is in most elementary schools, or a special art room, as it is in most secondary schools. Both types of rooms need enough space for large tables where pupils can work in small or large groups and large open floor space for certain projects. If the art program is to be carried on in the regular classrooms, art supervisors say, the rooms should be flexible and large; the minimum floor area, exclusive of storage space, should be 1,000 square feet. If the various art classes are to be taught in a special art room, the minimum should be larger than 1,000 square feet.

In secondary schools the space required will be determined largely by the number of pupils to be taught, the type of program to be offered, and the furniture and equipment to be used. It will be influenced to some extent by the availability of adjacent outside areas and nearness of exists to outdoor classrooms and school grounds for projects requiring large open spaces.

The area of secondary school art rooms will also be determined by whether the room will be used as an all-purpose room or a special art room. In an all-purpose art room pupils work with such equipment as drawing tables, looms, kilns for ceramics, benches and tools for wood and metal work and for printing and stage design—all requiring much space. (Specifications for an all-purpose art room for 25 pupils in a Fulton, Ga., school plant called for 1,550 sq. ft. of floor space, over and above the space required for storage compartments.)

If the teacher's work area is in the classroom, ample space, separated from the space for class activities, should be provided for her use in planning her lessons, organizing her materials, and assembling displays. In some large schools art coordinators and special art teachers have workrooms that are separated from art instructions rooms; in some smaller schools teachers have work space in the supply and storage rooms.

Furniture and equipment.—The persons who select the furniture and equipment will have no trouble in finding a variety available, for there is a wide variety on the market. Their problem, rather, is to know what the educational needs are so that they can select furniture to match them. To make a wise selection, they must know the number of pupils, their ages or grade levels, and the program to be offered.

No matter where art is taught, whether in the regular classroom or in a special art room, and no matter at what level, various kinds of work areas, furniture, and equipment should be provided. In addition to the usual chairs and tables of a classroom, the pupils will need some tables with water-resistant surfaces; counters with sinks; cabinets for storage; clay bins; a tool cart with saws, hammers, drills, files, and chisels; free-standing easels; workbenches with vises; and audiovisual aids.

For the secondary school still other types of equipment are desirable. The multipurpose art room, for example, may include clay and enamel kilns, jigsaw, drill press, grinder, buffers, workbench with fireproof top, chalk board, metal-covered counters, craft tables, drying racks, hooded spray booths, plaster of paris bins, cover for plastics, printing press, paper cutter, sewing machine, and audiovisual equipment.

Plumbing and built-in facilities.—Every art room and every general classroom where art is taught needs a sink with drain boards, and some art rooms need more than one sink. Art teachers prefer large, deep, acid-resistant sinks with built-in cabinets and extra hot and cold water spigots, located near the working areas so that clean-up

Little children studying art in a regular classroom need many tables and large open floor spaces.

activities will not block the flow of traffic. Some teachers prefer all-purpose double sinks projecting into the room so that pupils can work on three sides. If the sink is placed against a wall the area back of it should be finished with material easily cleaned and impervious to water.

Every art room needs electrical outlets and floor drainage.

Storage and display.—Every school must solve its storage problem on the basis of available space, facilities, and the program to be offered. As a result, schools make different kinds of provision: Some require each art teacher to store her materials in her own room; others have central storage. In any case, building plans should provide for storing art materials.

Although art rooms should be flexible, some storage equipment should be built in. Cabinets, for example, should be planned for specific purposes and should be built in. They should have toe space below, tops covered with materials suitable as a work surface, and inside storage at least one inch larger than the materials to be stored.

If possible, equipment should be planned so that everything can be stored within reaching height, so that shelving will accommodate materials varying in width and height. Some shelves should be horizontal, some vertical.

Different types of storage for equipment that can be locked should be provided either in the art room or a nearby room to make access to materials easy and to protect them against damage. These types are recommended:

Closed cabinets for paints, acids, cleaners, and solvents (solvents should be stored in safety cans correctly labeled).

Special cabinets built like drawing board racks, perforated pressboard, and hanging devices for storing tools (with painted silhouettes to indicate the place for each tool).

Large easily manipulated drawers for water color paper and poster boards.

Deep shelves mounted on casters for large bulky art supplies.

Lock drawers designed as tote trays for jewelry, leather, and other expensive projects, delicate materials, and tools.

Vertical racks for drawing boards.

Display cases for pupils' work should be placed in entryways, foyers of auditoriums, and cafeterias. Some should be built through the wall separating the classroom from the corridor and arranged so that some objects may be seen from the classroom and others from the corridors. All cases should have locks and provision for good lighting. Back doors of the cases can be covered with corkboard and used for display of flatwork.

Shape of art room.—A majority of the art rooms in public schools are rectangular. Long narrow rooms, however, do not easily lend themselves to a variety of activities in which various types of materials and equipment may be used. Some schools have L-shaped rooms, which may make it easy to group pupils working with different materials. Teachers generally prefer nearly square rooms, not only to facilitate traffic and storage but also to improve auditory conditions.

Audiovisual aids.—As much as to any subject, audiovisual materials contribute to art instruction, for they offer a means for enlarging upon pupils' educational experiences. Media for classroom instruction and communication include television, films, slides, recordings, graphs, opaque and overhead projectors, specimens, models, and books.

Environmental conditioning.—The space for instruction should be properly dimensioned and conditioned for the safety and comfort of its occupants. In fact, the educational usefulness of a building depends largely upon proper light, heat, sound control, and aesthetic qualities.

During the past decade many planners of new buildings have used large glass areas in outside walls for natural light, some from wall to wall and from floor to ceiling. Now, however, there may be a trend toward installing shorter windows and using the space under them for shelving, bins, and cabinets. Schools installing shorter windows should make sure that the bottoms of windows are on eye level so that children can see the world around them from a sitting position.

In selecting artificial lighting for an art room, planners should seek reasonable intensity with comfortable brightness. To supplement lighting, especially for demonstration areas and displays, they can provide for movable spotlights on the ceiling that can be adjusted for other special lighting.

Since the temperature in an art room affects pupils' mental and physical comfort, it may have an important bearing on their ability to learn. A temperature of 68° to 70° F. is recommended for a room in which pupils are inactive, 65° F. for one in which they are active, and a relative humidity of about 45 for both. Many new school buildings have a combined heating and ventilating system that regulates both temperature and humidity and provides for an even, draft-free distribution of air. Some teachers, however, prefer radiant floor heat in elementary classrooms where pupils often work at floor levels.

Noises can be reduced in art rooms by covering the ceilings and panels of walls with sound-absorbing materials such as acoustical tile or hanging curtains and the floors with rubber, asphalt, or vinyl tile. Since many acoustical materials possess aesthetic as well as functional qualities and since both materials and methods of sound

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WILLIAM L. SLAYTON

The influence of urban renewal on education

The Office of Education Conference on the Impact of Urbanization on Education, May 28–29, brought together two groups of men and women—school leaders and Federal officials—interested in improving life in the cities. The Federal officials were the administrators of programs that affect city life—public housing, urban renewal, highway, child welfare, education, and labor—and directors of the President's committees on youth employment and deliquency. The school leaders were members of school boards and superintendents in the 15 large cities that make up the Research Council of the Great Cities Progam for School Improvement.

The resulting exchange of information and points of view suggested a number of possibilities for relating Federal programs to the needs of schools in major urban centers. It was generally agreed that cooperation between Federal officials and school administrators, beginning with the initial stages of all projects in urban areas, would be extremely helpful, both to the Federal agencies and to the schools. A summary report of the conference is being prepared.

Mr. Slayton's address to the conference, reprinted below, describes one of the major Federal programs helping counteract physical deterioration in the great cities.

The great cities of this Nation are in trouble. For you, the officials responsible for the school systems in our larger cities, this scarcely requires any emphasis. You spend your days living and struggling with the fundamental urban problems of America.

These problems reflect the parallel forces of growth and decay. We can see their effects in the physical and functional obsolescence facing the hearts of our great cities, in the dreary gray areas of run-down housing, in the deterioration of mass transportation facilities and the choking congestion of the streets and highways. The problem is no less evident in the consequences of the fragmentation of the tax base necessary to support community services. And perhaps most of all, it is evident in the changing social pattern of our great cities—a trend towards ever-increasing stratification, making the cities the abode of the very poor and the very rich, with the middle class living in the suburbs.

At the same time that these forces of decay are at work, the new and urgent demands of the 1960's are competing for attention—new housing for our growing population, new sites for industrial expansion, new commercial enterprises, new institutions—hospitals, schools, and public buildings.

The problems before us are immense. They involve no less than the restructuring and redesign of our major urban centers over the next decade or two. In Newark, New Jersey, for example, a recently completed study estimates that the renewal of the city will require the replacement of one-fourth of all existing housing, while an additional 30 percent will need rehabilitation. In addition there must be a wholesale redesign of the central business district to fit changing economic functions. A significant part of our industrial plants will have to be relocated and rebuilt. More land will have to be provided to meet the expanding needs of hospitals and universities.

My point of departure and major emphasis today is the integral nature of the urban community. The key word is community—the unity that embraces all of these problems—and brings us together in this common interest. The many functions, problems, and sectors of the community cannot be peeled off like the skin of an onion. They are, rather, integral and inseparable parts of a series of interrelationships between people and functions.

The community is one and we must learn to deal with it as one. Neither the schoolman, the planner, the urban renewer, nor the highway engineer can retreat to the better ordered world of his separate profession. They are of the community, not apart from it. In short, we cannot deal with the problems of the modern community in parts and fragments without greatly impairing the effectiveness as well as the efficiency of our efforts. A comprehensive approach is essential. This is a simple statement, and very nearly a truism, but it is employed too seldom as a guide to action in the community. In many cities, the school system and other municipal functions are organized with a substantial measure of independence from the overall governmental structure. While there are some virtues to such an arrangement, we should never let the shibboleths of independence obscure the real interdependence of functions. In the important problems with which we are con-

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MR. SLAYTON is Commissioner, Urban Renewal Administration, Housing and Home Finance Agency.

cerned, independent status is only another reason for the need for more effective and imaginative efforts towards coordination and cooperation in programs dealing with the same city and the same set of taxpayers.

We in urban renewal have been learning for 13 years—and we are still learning—what a comprehensive approach involves and how it may be accomplished. After a decade of projects imperfectly related to the overall fabric of the city, we now have an important and promising instrument for developing a long-term comprehensive strategy for community improvement—the Community Renewal Program. This is an action-oriented program, through which a city marshals all of its resources and problems, working out a schedule for community-wide improvement. While initially it was conceived as a tool for identifying and scheduling renewal action on a citywide basis, it has now become a tool for community decision-making on a broad front.

The Community Renewal Program recognizes that renewal actions must be programed in conjunction with decisions and plans for schools, highways, and other public facilities which not only support renewal objectives but represent a concurrent drain on the same local resources. It reflects the view that a long-range community improvement program must be based upon a realistic assessment of the local economy and the actions necessary to strengthen it. It reflects the need to plan for, and make decisions on, the problems involved in providing adequate housing for displaced families of low and moderate income. It reflects our only recently developed view that community renewal cannot succeed unless it can deal constructively with the great problems of human adjustment uncovered by, or involved in, renewal action.

Thus far, I have barely mentioned schools, but schools are crucial in any effective effort for the improvement of our urban communities. In the complex of interrelationships between the schools and community planning, I would like to touch on three important aspects of the problem: (1) The advanced planning of schools and comprehensive community planning; (2) the role of the schools in urban renewal areas; and (3) the role of the schools in the slums.

Decay and obsolescence in the physical fabric of the city are not confined to the housing, the stores, and the factories. They tend to be no less characteristic of the public facilities that serve the blighted areas. Long-range planning must, therefore, anticipate the gradual replacement of the significant proportion of the public school plant over a period of years. It must at the same time provide for new schools to meet new needs.

In this connection, I do not need to point out to you that our largest cities are facing a fundamental anomaly—the anomaly of rising school enrollments while total population declines. At the same time, our cities are witnessing sharp shifts of population within the city—with drastic and serious impact upon school enrollments. These forces of change, coupled with the effect of large-scale urban renewal and highway projects, are making long-range school planning in the large cities a nightmare of complexity. Under these circumstances, the long-range planning of schools—more, indeed, than any other public facility—is dependent upon a better understanding of both the probable impact of change upon the demographic structure of the city and better planning for directed changes in land use through urban renewal and other tools of public action.

The Community Renewal Program should meet this need. It will not reduce the magnitude of change but it should add a coherent sense of direction. It should provide an intelligent basis for planning schools in conjunction with plans for the changes in land use. It should provide an opportunity to schedule with greater accuracy the provision and expansion of schools at the places and at the times when they are going to be needed. Further, it should provide for better relationship between school and neighborhood.

At the same time, there are other substantial benefits that can be derived from the scheduling of schools in conjunction with renewal action. Urban renewal can remove one of the most serious roadblocks to the improvement of school plants in congested central cities by providing sites needed for new construction or expansion—and providing these sites at a cleared land cost. At the same time, Federal urban renewal legislation provides that the cost of building schools serving urban renewal areas may be treated as part of the localities' share of the cost of the project. As a rough rule of thumb, for every three dollars invested in local school construction serving a project area, two additional Federal dollars are made available for carrying out the project.

Communities must be built to serve human needs. The success of our efforts ultimately will be determined not by the quality of housing or school buildings but by the opportunities the community provides for a satisfying life for the human beings who live and work there. It must meet felt human needs and accommodate the living preferences of many diverse individuals and families.

We need to begin with an image of the community which can fill this prescription. The key, in my opinion, is diversity. While heterogeneity is the cause of many of the problems of the city, it is also a major strength. By bringing together many types of people and many needs, the cities have served as generators of culture and of ideas. The city school must necessarily think of its mis-

sion in terms of heterogeneity. The schools have many roles to perform as they serve the varying neighborhoods in the community. The school must educate both the socially disadvantaged and the privileged.

We are witnessing at present a social movement of great momentum, with a great shift of white middle class to the suburbs while the central cities become increasingly the haven for the impoverished and the non-white. This movement is destructive of the heterogeneity of function, of purpose, and of people on which the viability of the modern urban community is dependent. A continuation of the present trend of the middle class away from the central city will mean eventually the attrition and decay of the unique commercial and cultural facilities and institutions of the central city that are dependent upon this group for their support and prosperity.

This means that urban renewal must be heavily engaged in the protection and development of central city heterogeneity. This is a current major—though not always recognized—role of urban renewal. It is providing opportunities for housing for the middle-income families in close-in locations; opportunities for major urban cultural institutions such as Washington's Arena Stage, and the massive Center for the Performing Arts now being constructed at Lincoln Square in New York City. It is making possible livelier, more active downtowns.

The role of the schools in the success of new neighborhoods now emerging in central city areas must not be underemphasized. These neighborhoods are dependent upon their ability to attract families who already have a wide range of housing choices. Middle- and upper-income families have in recent years shown a marked preference for housing in the suburbs. There are many reasons for this but one persistent factor is the belief that the suburbs offer opportunities for better education for their children. It means that the central city schools with a tremendous advantage in fixed plant, with going administrative and teaching staffs, and with all of the cultural advantages of the city, are unable to provide the educational opportunities available in suburban areas. For the urban renewal program, the success of both redevelopment and rehabilitation appears to be intimately related to the availability of superior educational programs attuned to the cultural pattern of the new neighborhoods that are being created.

The attraction of renewal areas cannot be effective without a highly regarded school program. The striking success of the Amidon school in the Southwest Washington renewal area is illustrative. The failure to provide good new schools on a timely basis in many other renewal areas is no less instructive in its impact. I should emphasize in middle and upper class areas the special importance of schools or school programs aimed at high achievement, and the provision of unique educational opportunity. As Dr. Conant has pointed out, the movement of the middle class to the suburb has resulted in cultural and intellectual segregation in society and in the school systems. This pattern will not be disturbed without an effort to provide equally acceptable alternatives within the city.

The essential step is recognition of the special problems of schools in redevelopment areas where important changes in the population are taking place. The schools in these areas must be organized and equipped to carry out their mission in a radically changed environment. The objective is to align the school program to support efforts to redevelop slum areas. Only in this way can the central city survive as a balanced community. Not the least of the problem is the need to retain in the city a portion of the leadership elements in the population which are now fast being lost to the suburbs.

I would like to turn now to another and vastly different aspect of the problem—the slums and the underprivileged and impoverished families who live in the slums. The city slum, as a social complex, has three salient characteristics on which our attention must be concentrated. First, the slum represents a concentration not merely of bad housing but of virtually all of the social problems of American society. Crime, juvenile delinquency, alcoholism, drug addiction, poverty, illiteracy, disease, unemployment, and broken families are all found here in massively greater degree than in society as a whole. Secondly, the problem of the slum is in substantial measure a problem of race—of the Negro, of the Puerto Rican, of the Mexican, and of the Oriental. It is a community of the underprivileged, the discriminated against, and, if you will, the second class participants in the American dream. Finally, the slum is as dynamic an aspect of the American life as the mushrooming suburb. It is the destination of a vast migration of opportunity-seeking Negroes and Puerto Ricans. It is a way station for those who are moving up and out of the slums.

I am confident that the physical job of eliminating the slums is within the capacity of any American city with the determination to do it. I am convinced, too, that the slum families can be rehoused in a manner which gives them, in President Kennedy's words, "the opportunity to live in the dignity befitting a free people." It cannot be done, however, unless the community deals forthrightly not merely with the need for middle-income and public housing but also with the easing of discrimination in housing markets and with more effective efforts to provide housing for families of moderate income through the operation of the private housing market. As my chief, Housing Administrator Robert C. Weaver, has said: "A

primary objective of the Kennedy Administration has been to increase the housing choices available to all Americans. This means, first of all, increasing the supply of housing. But it is not just the supply of housing that limits the choices American have. It is also discrimination that artificially restricts the housing market to conform to racial or religious prejudices." Nevertheless, it is clear that good housing open to all is not enough.

In this connection the role of the schools is crucial. I think that this has been stated extremely well by the distinguished British historian Dennis W. Brogan. Mr. Brogan, in discussing the American school system, points out:

> "[A] . . . very large portion will be the children of migrants from different parts of the United States. Others will be the children of rural-bred parents, forced to adjust to the new urban world. They have to learn a common language, common habits, common tolerances, a common political and national faith.
>
> "The political function of the schools is to teach Americanism, meaning not merely political and patriotic dogma, but the habits necessary to Ameircan life."

The schools of the slums today, despite strong and enlightened efforts by teachers and school administrators, are not achieving the objective.

The basic reason for this failure has been most directly stated by Dr. Conant in his recent book on *Slums and Suburbs:*

> "Big cities have always had slums. In the United States in the past it was possible for people to raise themselves by their own bootstraps in the course of a generation. Why be alarmed about the present situation? Such a complacent projection of the past into the obscure future is fallacious for several reasons. First and foremost is the fact that in the past most of the inhabitants of slums were recently arrived white foreign immigrants. They knew that their predecessors for generations had worked their way out of poverty in the cities. They were convinced that they could do likewise. The almost complete lack of such conviction—a consequence of the tragic story of the Negro in the United States—is the outstanding characteristic of youth in the Negro slum."

It seems to be obvious that the problems of the school administrators in the slum schools and the problems of urban renewal in the rebuilding of our cities are not going to be solved unless and until we can deal successfully with this central issue. This is not a matter merely of better education and better housing. It is at its heart a question of opportunity—opportunity for jobs, opportunity for choices in housing, and opportunity for full participation in American life.

This is no longer a problem which can be swept under the rug and forgotten. Our continuing failure to resolve it will mean the increasing bifurcation of urban society in America between city and suburb, Negro and white, the haves and the have nots. It will mean at the same time the destruction of an urban culture dependent upon a wider degree of heterogeneity.

This job can be done—and it will be done—through good faith and the collaboration of all concerned. As I indicated in my opening remarks, the Federal Government is striving to coordinate its approach to helping the cities, and we in turn expect the cities to coordinate their efforts. We must all be involved in the clearing of the slums, the provision of decent housing, the development of public facilities, and education for urban living. Training for work, for example, must be considered a part of efforts to strengthen the local economy and to provide increased job opportunities. There must be a continued chipping away at the structure of discrimination which hobbles every effort at community betterment. Finally, there must be a commonly accepted sense of form and structure for the developing community, striking a balance among mutually supporting component functions and people.

CONFERENCE REPORT

THE REPORT on the Conference on the Ideals of American Freedom and the International Dimensions of Education, called by Commissioner McMurrin on March 26–28, has been released by the Office of Education. It is a summary of the deliberations of 140 leaders in U.S. education on the state of education in this country in the light of its traditions and the need for more understanding of other cultures. Participants discussed such topics as the worldwide challenge of communism, the meaning of freedom, and teaching about national ideals. In addition, they called for an organized national effort to define more clearly the fundamentals of freedom.

The report, titled "Education for Freedom and World Understanding" (OE–10016, 60 cents) may be obtained from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D.C.

R. N. Finchum and Glenn C. Boerrigter

Improving the fire loss record

FIRES ORIGINATING in public and private elementary and secondary schools in the United States caused 426 deaths and the loss of property worth millions of dollars during the quarter of a century from 1933 through 1958. Most of these lives and much of this property could have been saved had those responsible for the schools taken all precautions necessary to fire safety. Loss occurred in many instances because of failure to install adequate detection and alarm systems; to provide and maintain approved fire protection equipment; to design and maintain safe routes of egress; to plan adequate exits at proper locations; to develop and follow appropriate plans and procedures for evacuation; to follow satisfactory housekeeping practices; and to allow for human fallibility. Usually failure to provide one or more of these precautions occurred because of inadequate laws or because officials were not aware of the need for these precautions and the protection they offer or of the resources available to help them provide fire-safe schools.

Since 1958 those responsible for the schools have done much to tighten precautions. Though no loss of life in a school fire has been reported since 1958, property loss continues at an alarming rate: about $17.4 million in 2,900 fires in 1959 and $16 million in 3,000 fires in 1960.[1] This means that each day of these 2 years there was an average of more than eight fires and an average property loss of about $45,822. When this loss is considered as a unit of cost for a complete school plant with all related facilities, $45,822 equals the approximate cost of one well-equipped classroom. If we think of this loss as one classroom a day, 730 classrooms accommodating 21,900 children (30 to a room) were destroyed during 1959 and 1960. Such a figure makes us realize that the problems of school fire safety persist and require the constant attention and vigilance of responsible officials.

Improving the country's record on school fire loss should be the concern of all citizens, but responsibility for accomplishing this goal rests in varying degrees on national, State, and local governments and organizations: The Federal Government because of its obligation to protect the well-being of all citizens, national and State private organizations for professional or humane reasons, and State and local governments by statute. Each of these has resources and machinery that make it possible for them to help the school improve the fire loss record.

The Federal Government discharges its obligation for fire safety through several agencies, principally the Federal Fire Council, the National Bureau of Standards, the Building Research Advisory Board, the Committee on Fire Research of the National Academy of Sciences-National Research Council (an affiliate of the Federal Government), the Office of Emergency Planning, and the Office of Education. These agencies conduct or support research on the causes and prevention of fires; test materials used in construction; develop standards for the performance of materials, supplies, or equipment; disseminate information to the public; or offer consultive and advisory services to State and local school systems and others interested in school safety. The Federal Fire Council, for instance, extends the benefits of its long experience with the safety of Federal buildings, for which it is responsible, to the schools. The Office of Emergency Planning, though primarily concerned with rebuilding schools after a fire or

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[1] *Fires and Fire Losses Classified 1959* (NFPA Q54–4) and *Fires and Fire Losses Classified 1960* (NFPA Q55–4), Boston, National Fire Protection Association.

other disasters or in planning the use of schools as shelters in case of enemy attack, also has information on fire prevention. Federal agencies have no power to enforce regulations—they can only suggest and recommend.[2]

A number of national, nongovernment organizations or associations representing industry or supported by foundations contribute significantly to our knowledge of fire and fire safety. They have developed and published many standards and safety codes on design and construction of buildings, installation of equipment, and minimum requirements for fire safety. These codes usually affect the safety of school buildings only to the extent that they are adopted and become legally enforceable by State or local governments. Deviations from these standards occur in jurisdictions where applicable codes are either less strict than those prescribed by the national organizations, or in jurisdictions where building standards are left entirely to local school boards and their architects. These localities, however, can expect reputable architects to exercise reasonable judgment in planning schools that are fire safe. Among these organizations are the American Institute of Architects (AIA), American Mutual Insurance Alliance (AMIA), American Society for Testing Materials (ASTM), American Standards Association (ASA), Educational Facilities Laboratory, Inc. (EFL), National Board of Fire Underwriters (NBFU), and the National Fire Protection Association (NFPA).

At the State level responsibility for school fire safety is, first of all, legislative. A State's lawmaking body can incorporate national construction codes and building standards in State statutes or it can delegate authority for and control of construction standards to commissions, boards, or other agencies. In general, statutes that delegate broad authority to State boards of education giving them regulatory powers over school construction, including the alteration or remodeling of existing school buildings, work more to the school's advantage than those which incorporate construction standards and codes in the laws themselves. Rules and regulations of State boards are relatively easy to change—the board simply changes them. Statutes, on the other hand, are often difficult to amend or repeal. As a result, outmoded building codes and standards may remain in effect for years—blocking the use of new materials, advanced techniques of construction, and promising architectural-engineering developments. Whether standards for school construction and safety are statutory or have been developed by State boards, they are usually minimum standards at best. While they do not prevent a district from using higher standards, many districts because of limited funds or other reasons, consider State standards as maximum, not minimum. The acceptance by school districts of State standards as maximum is a major weakness in State control over construction standards for public schools.

State agencies and departments other than the education agency may also have some statutory responsibility for the health and safety of schoolchildren. The State fire marshal, for instance, may be required to review all plans and specifications for new buildings and structures to be remodeled; the State electrical inspector, to pass on electrical wiring and other electrical installations; and the State boiler inspector, on boiler installations. In all cases, the results of their work is more effective if the State education agency, through its division of schoolplant planning, coordinates all reviews legally required by other State agencies or officials and brings all comments together in one letter of approval or disapproval to local school officials.

Another source of help usually available to State and local school systems without cost in planning and operating fire-safe schools is the State inspection bureau or State rating bureau operated by fire and casualty insurance companies to determine insurance rates. A bureau has no legal authority, of course, to enforce regulations and its service is entirely advisory. Its highly trained engineers can locate potential fire hazards in plans for new construction and can identify dangerous conditions in existing buildings. Schools that follow the bureau's recommendations will have fewer fire hazards and substantially lower insurance rates—two results that are economically profitable for the school district.

The final responsibility for fire safety in the school rests on the local board of education, the strength of which evolves from the statutes under which it operates and the support of the people it serves. As an arm of the State government, the board has some powers and obligations that are mandatory and some that are permissive. If State statutes do not require local boards to provide reasonably fire-safe school buildings, permissive authority—as well as moral obligation—should impel them to protect the children and the property under their stewardship. Board obligations with respect to fire safety are numerous and varied. The school will benefit most if the board adopts prudent policies, if they are firmly and fairly executed by competent and devoted administrators supported by people who are grateful for the safety and protection afforded their children and public property, and if all concerned with the school—board members, administrators, teachers, students, maintenance and operating employees, and laymen—view the policies as a coopera-

[2] Plans for schools built with the assistance of Public Law 815, aid for school construction in federally affected areas, must be submitted to the Administrator, Housing and Home Finance Agency, who passes on whether they meet safety requirements.

tive endeavor affecting the economic and civil structure of the entire school district.

The superintendent, as the executive officer of the school board, administers all policies of the board, including those on fire safety. Many school districts, particularly those with large enrollments and many school buildings, employ an assistant superintendent for buildings and grounds to handle the problems of school facilities. His duties are to work closely with architects and local building committees in developing plans for new buildings that conform to local or State standards of safety; to conduct or direct studies on school facilities to determine needs for new buildings and for maintenance; to develop maintenance schedules and practical operating programs; to inspect or direct the inspection of buildings for fire and other hazards; to administer services necessary for school-plant operation; and to conduct or plan training programs for school-plant employees to insure good housekeeping practices for all buildings under his care. Whoever the official responsible for buildings and grounds is, he should keep the school board informed on conditions in and around school buildings, and when board policy for construction, plant operation, or safety needs to be modified, he should prepare and be able to support recommendations that strengthen the policy.

School principals are directly responsible for individual school buildings. They should always strive diligently to see that all fire hazards are kept to an absolute minimum or are eliminated if possible. To fulfill their responsibility they must conduct a thorough daily inspection or designate a competent person to conduct the inspection; they must obtain the full cooperation of their teachers and of the school's other employees; they must see that students and other users of the school buildings learn to respect school property; and they must see that persons operating school-plant facilities are ever alert and doing the finest housekeeping job possible every day of the year.

The machinery is certainly at hand for improving the school's fire-loss record. If everyone from the national to the local level does his part with even greater effort, we will certainly see an improvement.

The Federal Government, national organizations, professional organizations, and industries prepare publications that can be of use to the schools on fire safety:

Government and Government-Related

Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D.C.
School Fire Safety (USOE Bull. 1951, No. 13), 25 cents.
School Fire Drills (USOE Pamphlet No. 103), 10 cents.
School Fires: Prevention, Control, Protection (Office of Education), in press.
Report of the Committee on Fire Prevention Education (President's Conference on Fire Prevention), 10 cents.

Federal Fire Council, Washington 25, D.C.
Fire Prevention and Protection in Government Structures; Automatic Fire Alarm Systems; Fire Resistance Requirements for Interior Wall and Ceiling Finishes; Fire Experiences of the Federal Government.

National Academy of Sciences-National Research Council, 2101 Constitution Avenue, Washington 25, D.C.
School Fires: An Approach to Life Safety, $2.50.

Office of Civil and Defense Mobilization, Battle Creek, Mich.
Disaster Readiness in Undergraduate Education, free.

National Foundations, Professional Organizations, and Industries

American Institute of Architects, 1735 New York Avenue, NW., Washington 6, D.C.
Selecting an Architect for School Construction, 10 cents.

American Society for Testing Materials (ASTM), 1916 Race Street, Philadelphia 3, Pa.
ASTM Standards in Building Codes, $8 (current edition), $3.25 (annual supplements); *Standard Methods of Fire Tests of Building Construction and Materials.*

National Board of Fire Underwriters, 85 John Street, New York 38, N.Y.
Fire Safe Schools; National Building Code; Fire Resistance Ratings; Fire Prevention Code, free.

National Fire Protection Association, 60 Batterymarch Street, Boston, Mass.
Building Exits Code (NFPA No. 101), $1.50; *National Electrical Code* (No. 70), $1; *Proprietary Protective Signaling Systems* (No. 72), 60 cents; *Standards for the Installation of Sprinkler Systems* (No. 13), $1.25.

Underwriters' Laboratories, Inc., 207 East Ohio Street, Chicago, Ill.
Fire Protection Equipment List, free.
Building Materials List, free.

Educational Facilities Laboratories, Inc., 477 Madison Avenue, New York, N.Y.
Ring the Alarm!, free.

American Association of School Administrators, 1201 16th Street, NW., Washington 6, D.C.
Safety, Sanity, and Schools, 25 cents.

National Commission on Safety Education, 1201 16th Street, NW., Washington 6, D.C.
Fire Safety for Junior High Schools, 50 cents.
Fire Safety for Senior High Schools, 50 cents.

Louise Omwake Eckerson and Hyrum M. Smith

Guidance in elementary schools: Successful practices

A YOUNG CHILD seldom recognizes a problem which limits his performance in school. One with a sensory defect does not know that he fails to see or hear all that other children see and hear. He is not aware that his lack of interest in reading is related to emotional stress at home. He can not tell why his work in school falls below his parents' and teachers' expectations, and he has little conception of what those expectations are.

An understanding of a child's difficulties must come by way of the sensitive perception and sound interpretation of his behavior by adults. The child's own words can lead, and at the same time, mislead parents and teachers who try to unravel cause and effect in motivation and achievement.

When a child says "I hate to read," "I don't feel like playing," or "I can't talk in class; I'm scared," his remarks may mean nothing or they may be danger signals, symptoms of disturbance. If his teacher hears him, she is sympathetic, and she is sensitive to his troubles even when he doesn't complain. But because she has a crowded teaching schedule, 35 other children, and a limited guidance background, she may do little more than ask superficial questions, resolve to observe him more closely, and hope that time will bring improvement.

Unfortunately, time alone isn't likely to bring improvement; instead it lets the cause of his disturbance cut deeper grooves into his personality and affect many aspects of his life. By the time he reaches high school it may be too late to change his educational, emotional, social, or health pattern. And even if it can be changed significantly, it has already been detrimental to his development for 6 to 8 years. With proper guidance things could have been different. The cause of his troubles could have been identified earlier.

Secondary school counselors have learned through experience that the characteristics that prevent the gifted child from doing superior work and those that are typical of the dropout and the delinquent were well developed when these children entered high school. Moreover, research has proved that children's unhealthy habits, physical defects, poor work patterns, neurotic traits, retardation in school work, or antisocial behavior can usually be detected in the elementary grades.

But detection isn't enough; it is merely the first step; the cause of the disturbance must be found and if possible removed. The cause might be any one of a number of things—loneliness, poor home environment, fear. All of these handicaps and others may affect a child's ability to learn, and not only his own but his classmates', for a disturbed child can disrupt the whole class by aggressive behavior or slow it down by his poor work habits. Some of these causes—poor home environment, for instance—are inherent in social conditions for which the school is not responsible. But some for which the school is responsible cannot be corrected by teachers who lack the time and the professional background necessary to recognize and interpret symptoms and give the children the guidance they need. Here a specialist is called for, one who is skilled in identifying early signs of trouble and who has professional knowledge, insight, and techniques of guidance. The earlier in children's lives the specialist begins his work, the greater his chances of helping them make good use of their capacities.

The elementary school is the logical place for guidance services to begin. As soon as a child enters school he should be observed and studied to determine ways in which he differs from other children so that his good traits can be developed and his weak or damaging traits corrected, or educational provisions made for him to minimize the effect of his limitations.

For a long time teachers and principals have performed some guidance services for elementary school children, and a few schools have had guidance specialists. In the last few years, however, an increasing number of schools from California to Connecticut have set up guidance programs staffed with personnel selected specifically to meet the needs of elementary school children. Specialists in these programs who have had experience in helping elementary school children overcome their difficulties know that guidance in elementary schools is quite different from guidance in high schools. Services on both levels aid pupils in reaching a higher step in their development, but the nature of the higher step and the maturity of the children dictate the functions of guidance and the training of guidance consultants.

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Since children everywhere have some common needs, guidance programs set up to meet their needs have many similar functions. But since elementary school programs have evolved from local conditions and local theories on how to improve those conditions, the services offered children differ from school to school in organization, personnel, and emphasis of the program. Because of these differences in communities, a program that serves children well in one school is not necessarily a good model for another. School officials planning to organize guidance services cannot therefore always adopt a tailormade program. But since they may get some helpful suggestions from practices that have proved successful elsewhere we list several here. These practices represent a composite of 24 elementary school guidance programs considered outstanding by State directors of guidance.

▶ The program is one part of a broader organization of services offered by the school system and community. These are usually called *pupil personnel services*, and in addition to guidance consultants, utilize school psychologists, school social workers, physicians, nurses, attendance coordinators, and perhaps other professional personnel such as speech and hearing specialists.

▶ The program serves all children, not just those with serious problems. All children benefit when teachers and parents understand the difficulties that go along with normal maturation. All children have minor problems from time to time.

▶ The guidance consultant is at the center of the program which involves the entire school staff. The teacher, assisted and supported by the consultant, applies guidance principles to classroom instruction.

▶ The consultant's functions are to—

Test and observe children who are having difficulties in learning, are underachievers, show signs of emotional disturbances, need curricular adjustment or placement in special classes, or are considered for referral to other specialists.

Counsel children with problems when the nature of the problem and the child's maturity indicate that counseling would be helpful.

Consult with teachers, principal, and parents to help them understand normal children and children with problems; use information derived from tests, observation, cumulative records, and conferences with children and adults.

Refer children needing intensive diagnosis to pupil personnel specialists and community agencies and help plan programs to carry out their recommendations.

Provide inservice training for teachers to aid them in meeting difficult classroom situations through understanding normal and abnormal behavior of children; help them understand how they should motivate children in taking intelligence and achievement tests, why they must follow directions exactly as stated in the test manual, what errors in administration and scoring can distort test results, how test scores should be interpreted to children and parents, how test data can be used to improve classroom teaching; and contribute to their understanding of mental health, maintenance and use of cumulative records, and techniques of interviewing parents.

Develop programs for group guidance in such areas as common personal problems, study habits, occupational orientation, and preparation for the secondary school.

Help children who need them obtain glasses, hearing aids, clothes, food, and other essentials.

Interpret the guidance program to parent and community organizations.

Conduct research and evaluative studies dealing with the effectiveness of the program.

▶ The consultant's background usually includes successful teaching experience in the elementary school, State certification for guidance personnel, and a master's degree in guidance.

Since guidance programs are planned to meet the needs of communities differing in cultural, economic, and social values and in educational opportunities, the functions of a particular consultant may be determined, at least in part, by a number of conditions: (1) the home environment and neighborhood of the pupils (for example, pupils from slum areas and pupils from well-to-do areas have different needs); (2) the consultant-pupil ratio; (3) attitudes of the administrators toward the consultant's activities (no program can be successful without the support of the faculty and administrators); (4) his own education, work experience, and personal qualifications which enable him to serve more effectively in some functions (such as remedial reading, group counseling, or play therapy) than in others; and (5) the extent to which other professional services are available (he may have to take over some functions of a school psychologist or school social worker if none is available).

While practices relating to guidance programs in most schools have much in common, there are some significant differences which merit study. Some of these are reported here to stimulate further experimentation to the end that each school may develop a program which most effectively serves its pupils.

A large city which has 180 full-time guidance consultants working in elementary schools is experimenting with this procedure:

To achieve the objects of early identification and prevention, 42 teams consisting of a counselor, a half-time social worker, and a half-time psychologist have been assigned to 47 schools. They will work exclusively in grades K–3 with concentration of efforts on grade 2. City-wide, the program deals with a cross section of the school population. Every child in the second grade and some children from grades K, 1 and 3 in these schools will be studied by the teams.

The program is concerned with the positive aspects of learning, child development, and personality growth, as well as with problems of maladjustment. . . . The team will review referrals from teachers, review records, and observe children in classrooms and other school situations . . . plan and decide on procedures . . . work with children individually and with teachers and parents through interviews, conferences and workshops.

In the same city another experimental project launched in 1959 employs 78 counselors in 52 elementary schools and 13 junior high schools:

Higher Horizons . . . [provides] for teacher training, remedial instruction, and cultural enrichment. The goal . . . is the raising of educational and vocational sights of *all* students—bright, average, or slow. . . . This includes intensive work with parents. . . . Because of the recognized need for early identification and appropriate stimulation of talent of any kind, attention will be focused . . . on the third grade . . . and the seventh grade . . . and will progress with the children from grade to grade. . . . [The] project must depend upon existing school and community resources for clinical help and the financing of the cultural enrichment program.

A project on the West Coast led to these conclusions:

. . . the traditional roles of the psychologist, psychometrist, social worker, or counselor in the elementary school need modification . . . Our investigation . . . [indicates] a need for a staff specialist . . . to serve . . . teachers, principal, and parents [relating to] . . . the child's intellectual and personal development. A minimum of professional training is seen as that of the clinical psychologist, psychiatric social worker, or the pupil personnel specialist from the field of educational guidance and counseling with clinical experience. . . .

The job of this staff specialist is to help teachers obtain the most useful information and services from pupil personnel specialists and to help them understand specialists' reports, and to help parents understand what they may expect of their children. One part of this project included directed classroom observation by guidance specialists, teachers, and parents of first-grade children. Its objectives were to acquaint parents with classroom teaching procedures and methods of working with children differing in maturity and to point out to them ways in which they could contribute to their own children's success and to the school program. To achieve its objectives, the school planned four 2-hour meetings: one for orientation and development of a guide to classroom observation; two for classroom observation and group discussion; and one for further observation or discussion and evaluation.

An Eastern town makes these provisions for testing:

The guidance staff includes a full-time counselor in each of our schools. . . . Intelligence testing is done at all levels on an individual basis. . . . At the elementary level a preschool test (Stanford-Binet) and interview with each child are scheduled in the summer prior to kindergarten. . . . Standardized achievement tests . . . in the spring . . . measure [the pupils'] yearly progress. . . . The results . . . indicate areas in the curriculum which need to be strengthened or revised.

A superintendent in a Midwest community says:

After a teacher with teaching experiences in both rural and elementary schools and in diagnostic and remedial reading was contacted, plans were made for establishing [him] . . . as an elementary classroom teacher, as a part of the preparation to assume the work of directing the guidance activities. A counselor-trainer [assisted] in the professional preparation of the selected teacher. Extension and summer sessions were utilized . . . and plans were completed for the beginning of the services the following year.

A school system in an Eastern city provides for extensive orientation for the guidance consultant who spends the first week visiting—

. . . each department: Aptitude testing; research, measurements and statistics; special education; special services for pupils; vocational education . . . social service exchange, family and children's society, department of public welfare, mental hygiene clinics, district health office. . . . After the counselors start work in their schools, visits are arranged to the juvenile court and to psychiatric clinics.

During his second week he reports to an elementary school where an experienced guidance consultant arranges his schedule to demonstrate as many activities as possible. The new consultant ". . . sits in on interviews; goes on home visits; observes group work with pupils; learns to make a class study, to record interviews, to refer pupils for aptitude testing, to keep a daily record of his work as a basis for his monthly and semi-annual reports, and attends conferences with the principal and teachers."

In this system the orientation of the faculty is as important as the orientation of the guidance consultant. The assistant director of guidance explains to the faculty the philosophy of the program, the aims and methods of working and the relationships with teachers, parents, administrators, school social workers, home visitors, nurses, doctors, and other school personnel.

A large community in the West requires its guidance

specialist (called visiting teacher) to hold a credential in pupil personnel services; to have 2 years of successful teaching experience *or* the equivalent in supervised field experience (school social work, school psychometry, or school psychology) including one year in a public school; and to have one year of graduate work consisting of course work and field experience in a general area of pupil personnel practices and procedures and a specialized area in pupil counseling, child welfare and attendance work, school social work, or school psychometry.

A Southern city says of its experiment with inservice training of teachers:

> We chose certain elementary schools [interested in] cooperating. . . . In each [school] several children who showed signs of personal problems were identified during the year. Each student was seen individually, his problem evaluated, and [a remedial plan] designed. The child's teacher, a team of counselors and psychologists from the central office, the school principal, the visiting counselor from the area office, and others . . . were active in the evaluation. After [examining the factors] involved in [his] problem and . . . their relative importance, [a conference of the entire faculty] was held at the school. . . .
>
> Each person assisting in the evaluation explained his perception of the problem. . . . Each teacher was encouraged to comment on the case and to draw from her own experiences similar situations. . . . A general program evolved which would strengthen the student's personality, and . . . the teachers examined themselves . . . in light of the role they play in building good mental health.

A Midwest city started an "elementary adjustment service" in 1936. Now each school has an adjustment teacher selected by the principal from the school faculty on the basis of qualification and interest, and trained by the supervisor of the elementary adjustment service. The adjustment teacher starts the program for each child by administering the reading readiness test in the first grade.

A large Eastern city which dates its guidance program from 1917 has 142 "counseling teachers" working in the elementary schools. Each counseling teacher is given inservice training equivalent to 1½ days a week for 1½ years with emphasis on social work techniques.

These are some of the theories underlying guidance practices in different programs:

> *That the guidance program serves a child indirectly:* "When feasible, the pupil has not been aware of the participation of the guidance consultant. . . . The individual pupil-interview has served in some cases where environmental modifications were difficult to obtain. . . ."
>
> *That the guidance program serves the child directly:* "The typical elementary school of 1970 will have at least one full-time professionally prepared counselor [who] will be able to devote about sixty percent of his time to work with children, [and the rest] to work with teachers and parents."
>
> *That the program should develop certain attitudes:* ". . . the teacher makes a major contribution to the objective of guidance by . . . recognizing adjustment needs as more urgent than learning needs . . . emphasizing the development of talents rather than the correction of deficiencies . . . recognizing the pupil's attitude toward the teacher as well as the teacher's attitude toward the pupil. . . ."
>
> *That the limitations of guidance services should be observed:* "It is important for teachers and counselors to be alert to signs of conflict but it is unwise to attempt to treat symptoms. A relationship exists between symptoms and causal factors, but the two should not be confused. Treatment of symptoms is apt only to exaggerate them, without removing cause. The business of the teacher and the counselor then is to be aware of the kinds of behavior that indicate conflict, then see that help is available for the individual exhibiting the behavior."
>
> *That certain responsibilities are NOT functions of the guidance consultant:* "The licensed counselor shall NOT be assigned to classroom teaching . . . shall handle and advise in disciplinary cases but shall not mete out punishment. . . . Shall not be required to perform yard, hall, cafeteria, or similar duties, except in extreme emergencies."

All the excerpts and abstracts we have included here concern guidance services coordinated and strengthened by guidance specialists even though the terminology used to describe them varies across the country: guidance consultant, counselor, visiting teacher, adjustment teacher, counseling teacher. The practices and theories also show that elementary school guidance programs and the training of guidance consultants are not standardized. This heterogeneity may be a sign of healthy growth and pragmatic planning which should be extended. At this point, we do not know whether standardization is desirable, and if so, in what direction. We should be able to find the answer through further experimentation.

Logically, the preparation of the guidance consultant should parallel the services which are most needed to help children learn in the classroom. These needs should be identified before graduate programs for guidance can be specified, and before State certification freezes the requirements for guidance personnel in elementary schools. It is possible that a variety of guidance consultants may best serve a variety of schools.

ALPHEUS L. WHITE

Compensation for school board members?

LIKE MANY OTHER current school problems, the question of compensation for school board members is rooted deep in the past. In 1838, 12 years after the Massachusetts State Legislature had established school committees, it enacted a statute requiring board members to be paid $1 a day for the time they were actually employed in discharging their official duties in addition to any other compensation their towns might provide. The law has since been revised a number of times, the revisions usually being restrictive. Cubberly,[1] nearly a half century ago, discussed the controversy of paid and unpaid boards and called attention to dangers of pay for service. Today, the question of whether school board members should receive compensation is still pertinent: it continues to find a prominent place on convention programs, to be discussed by board members in informal gatherings, to be treated in school board manuals, and to come before State legislatures.

What is compensation?

Because the term "compensation" has been used differently, both in educational literature and in statutory provisions, we should consider its meaning. Some authorities on school administration have used the term broadly, as a convenient word for referring to all types of payments, including monthly or annual salaries, per diem payments, mileage, and reimbursements for actual expenses. In some States, the laws governing payments to board members reflect this broad interpretation of compensation. For example, an Alabama statute entitled "Compensation," mentions per diem payments, travel expenses, and hotel expenses. In contrast, other authorities use the term in a restricted sense to distinguish between pay for services and reimbursement for expenses. State laws frequently maintain such a distinction; for example, an Arkansas statutory provision specifies that county board members shall serve without compensation but shall be allowed actual expenses.

Compensation, as I use the word here, refers to pay for services rendered. It is in this context that compensation has its opponents. When the word is used in its broad sense, it is not germane to the question of board pay, for there is general agreement that board members should be reimbursed for out-of-pocket expenses they incur in performing their official duties. Furthermore, it is in the interest of the school that no board member should have to spend his own money for attending board meetings, traveling for board activities, paying membership fees in board associations, or for similar purposes.

The type of payment made to board members that is clearly recognizable as compensation is the monthly or annual salary. Depending on its purpose, per diem may or may not be compensation. If it is provided for attending board meetings, it is compensation—such payment has no direct relation to actual expenses. If, however, per diem is paid for attending conventions of school board associations and for other travel out of the district, it is a reimbursement payment.

Even a cursory review of educational literature reveals that the weight of professional judgment has long been against compensation for school board members. Some of the reasons cited over the years in support of a no-compensation policy can be briefly summarized:

- The amount of pay that could reasonably be offered does not serve as an inducement to able men and women to accept school board service, but is likely to attract office seekers. In schools, as in private business, low pay is unlikely to attract top-quality people. If money is to serve as a means for attracting able community citizens, then a considerable amount of school funds must be earmarked for that purpose.
- Payment for service may create the feeling among board members that they must have a hand in the details of school operation in order to earn their pay. School boards are policy-making bodies and as such should not assume

Dr. White, specialist in school board organization and practices, has been with the School Administration Branch, Office of Education, since 1955. He is the coauthor of Financial Accounting for Local and State School Systems, *handbook II in the Office's records and reports series, and author of* Characteristics of Local School Board Policy Manuals (*OE Bulletin 1959, No. 14*).

[1] Ellwood P. Cubberly, *Public School Administration*, Boston, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1922.

Statistic of the Month

A man's education and his income

EVIDENCE TURNS UP again that there is a high correlation between a man's income and the time he spent in school. On the basis of findings in a recent study, Herman P. Miller, Bureau of the Census, estimates that, under conditions like those prevailing in 1958, the life-time income of males with different amounts of formal education differs as follows:

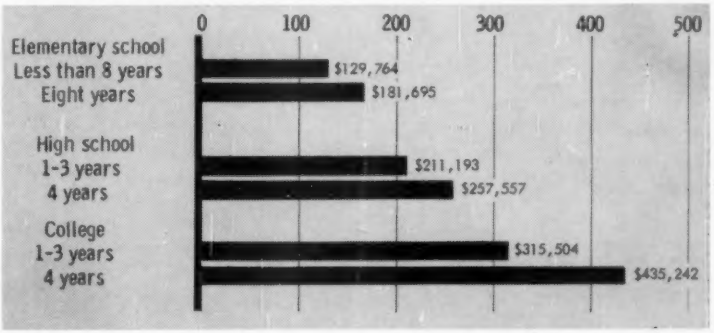
Eighth-grade graduates receive 40 percent or $52,000 more than men who did not complete the 8th grade.

High-school graduates receive 42 percent or $76,000 more than 8th-grade graduates.

College graduates receive 69 percent or $178,000 more than high-school graduates.

The differential between a man's early earnings and his peak earnings also seems to be related to the time he spent in school. Comparing the average income at age 30, at which time most men have had about 10 years of work experience, with the income at age 50, when most men are near the peak of their earning power, Dr. Miller finds that for the 8th-grade graduate the differential is only 18 percent; for the high-school graduate, 28 percent; and for the college graduate, 72 percent.

These figures are from Dr. Miller's article, "Money Value of an Education," in the Occupational Outlook Quarterly of the Department of Labor, September 1961. A more comprehensive report is his "Annual and Lifetime Income in Relation to Education, 1939–59," published in The American Economic Review, December 1960.—By Rose Marie Walker, educational statistician.



Lifetime income of males, by years of school completed, estimated, 1958

administrative responsibilities. To do so negates the efforts of the professional staff and causes turmoil within the school system.

• Compensation is in conflict with the belief that every citizen should willingly assume certain community obligations without expectation of pay. There is no finer way for a citizen to work voluntarily for the betterment of his community than as an unpaid member of the board of education.

• Paying salaries to members tends to place positions on the board on a patronage or political basis. With the school board interwoven in the fabric of local government, it is only natural that board membership positions made attractive by a salary would not be overlooked by patronage seekers or givers.

• If more money is needed for school operation, and it usually is, the money available should be used for that purpose rather than for board compensation. Using public funds to pay school board members provides a ready-made issue for any group that wants to attack the school budget.

• Experience shows that capable men and women who are willing to devote their time to school board work will do so without the inducement of pay. Throughout the years, hundreds of thousands of men and women, dedicated to improving public education, have given unselfishly of their time and energy. There is no basis for assuming that better board members would have been secured with pay.

The other side of the question also has its supporters. They rest their case for compensation largely on the fact that service on the board places a heavy legal and moral responsibility on members, a responsibility that requires much time and personal sacrifice. They contend that members should not be required to assume such responsibilities without financial remuneration. Among their reasons for advocating compensation are these:

• Service without pay tends to minimize the importance of the position and lessens public respect for the office.

• Other government officials with equal or less responsibility receive pay for their services.

• Compensation permits people who could not afford to serve on the board without pay to become members.

• The nominal salaries paid board members are similar to fees paid corporation directors. In private business these fees have not attracted the type of person who is primarily interested in the small financial payments.

State legislative provisions

Statutory provisions governing compensation and reimbursement of expenses have been enacted by most States.

A 1957 study [2] reports variations in the general statutes: 22 States prohibit compensation; 16 States permit compensation for all board members covered by general statutes; and 10 States permit compensation for members in certain districts.

A number of States authorize reimbursements of expenses for members when they are attending to official board work, particularly when travel outside of the school system is required. Some of these States also allow compensation.

Current practice

Recently, the U.S. Office of Education, in cooperation with the National School Boards Association, made a survey of the organization and practices in systems with 1,200 or more pupils enrolled. The findings of that survey, based on an analysis of responses from 4,072 school systems, are presented in an Office bulletin.[3] Some of the findings dealing with compensation are reported below.

Districts providing payments.—Slightly more than 75 percent of the 3,763 systems responding to a question on payments said that compensation or expenses or both were authorized for their board members. Classification of the replies by enrollment size of districts revealed only minor deviations from this percentage for all responses. (Five enrollment-sized categories were used: Group I, 1,200–2,999 pupils; group II, 3,000–5,999 pupils; group III, 6,000–11,999 pupils; group IV, 12,000–24,999 pupils; and group V, 25,000 pupils or more.) Classification by region (Northeast, North Central, South, and West) showed that compensation and expense allowances were most common in the North Central and least common in the West.

Annual cost.—Generally the amounts reported as pay and expenses for board members for one fiscal year were small, but in a few districts they were substantial. The total amount per board ranged from $2 to $56,523. The median was $450. Classification of the systems by enrollment showed that the amount spent increased with size of school system. The median for group V districts, those with 25,000 or more pupils, was $2,336 or about 8 times that of group I districts, the smallest systems.

Types of payment.—Three general types of payments were made: Actual travel expenses, including mileage; a flat amount per meeting or per day; and a flat amount per year. A number of the 2,470 systems responding to this item provided more than one type. In line with the no-compensation policy, nearly half of the boards received travel expenses only. In one out of five systems, members received travel expenses and flat amounts per meeting or per day; in one out of ten, they received a combination of travel expenses and flat amounts per year. Approximately one-fifth received payments based solely on either a flat amount per meeting or a flat amount per year.

The median amount for boards that received both travel expenses and a flat sum per year was $1,500 as compared with $200 for boards that received travel expenses only; the median for those that received only a flat sum per year was $1,000.

Rate of payments.—Some systems paid only nominal rates per day or meeting, while others were fairly liberal. Rates for board members ranged from $1 to $50. The median was $10. Flat amount per year payments varied greatly, ranging from $1 to $3,600, but over four-fifths of the systems responding to the item paid less than $500. Over three-fourths of the systems paying mileage allowed 7 or 8 cents a mile.

Limitations on payments.—Statutory provisions that authorize per diem and travel expenses for members attending board meetings usually limit the number of meetings for which payment may be made. For example, West Virginia statutes authorize per diem payments for 18 meetings a year; Ohio statutes, 12. In the survey, approximately two-fifths of the boards in 901 systems responding to the question held meetings over and above those for which they received per diem or travel expenses.

Payments for other meetings.—As school officials, members attend many meetings besides board meetings. In 70 to 83 percent of the systems responding to the question, board policy permitted payment of per diem and/or expenses for members traveling out of the district to conventions of National, State, and regional school board associations. Few authorized payments for travel within the district.

JUDGING by a number of facts, I believe we can predict that the practice of paying compensation to school board members will gradually diminish. Already it is considered as a threat to securing effective members. Already it is being opposed by influential groups; for instance, when a bill authorizing salaries for board members was recently filed in a State legislature, the newsletter of the State school board association carried an article opposing it. As local communities intensify their efforts to improve their schools, they will intensify their efforts to secure and maintain good boards, and will critically examine every potential obstacle to service of high quality.

[2] Morrell M. Hall, *Provision Governing Membership on Local Boards of Education*, Washington, D.C.; U.S. Government Printing Office, 1957. (U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education Bulletin 1957, No. 13) p. 35.

[3] Alpheus L. White, *Local School Boards: Organization and Practices*, Washington, U.S. Government Printing Office, 1962. 50 cents. (OE–23023.) (Available Sept. 1, 1962.)

OLIVER CALDWELL

The educated man in an unstable world

THERE HAS BEEN too much talk about possible destruction and doomsday, not enough about man's opportunity to create a new and better world. Education today should help our children to find an inward peace in an unstable world.

A gifted young girl, a girl who could become a great artist, recently said to her father, "Why should I slave for perfection? Why should you sacrifice to give me professional training? It is all useless: before long the world will come to an end."

"There is no way to know what is in the future," her father said. "But to those of us who believe in God, whatever happens will be the will of the Eternal. It is true that man has the capacity to destroy himself; but if he should do so in your lifetime it would only mean, at worst, that you had shared the greatest adventure of all time—the great change from what *is* to what *is to be*. We forget that life has always been a struggle to survive. We are much better off today than the Pilgrims were, and the other settlers on this continent. For them any moment could have been their last, but they never ceased to struggle forward; and because of their courage a new life was born.

"We have two duties today. The first is to struggle without ceasing for a better way of life for all of mankind; to work as if we were sure that the sun will rise tomorrow, that all will be well for our children. The second is to have faith, to look with courage at tomorrow."

So the daughter was comforted. But the father is still troubled. He knows that in many ways his generation has failed the generation of tomorrow. His generation has unleashed violent forces which it must be wise enough to control. Man has new powers, but he is still dominated by obsolete impulses.

There is something wrong with our system of education if our children look to their future with feelings of defeat and futility. All of society, including the home and the church, is at fault; and the school cannot escape a major share of the blame. Education today has a greater responsibility than it has ever had before.

First, it must impart increasingly complex facts.

Second, it must try to teach understanding and toleration, must instill into children the charity essential for the building of a stable human family.

Third, it must imbue with courage the pioneers who will venture into frontiers such as man has never reached before.

Fourth, it must help men to acquire the wisdom they need to deal with problems their ancestors never knew.

Finally, it must preserve in man the essential spirit of manhood, the sacred essence which makes a man.

There is a great palace outside the ancient city of Amber in India. In this palace there is a beautiful small temple. You enter through a door of solid silver. On this door are alternate scenes of creation and destruction. Inside the door is a structure built of white marble carved into intricate lace. There is a corridor which surrounds a small courtyard open to the heavens. The ceilings of the corridor are pure silver; the floor of the courtyard is marble. At one end there is a statue of Kali. Her nose is an enormous diamond. Her body is black, and on each side extend multiple arms.

Kali and her many arms may shock the Westerner. But she expresses a truth found in all religions. An ancient Hindu scripture says something like this: "With these hands I build, and with these I destroy." Kali represents the dual nature of man, of creation, of power, of divinity. She represents the dual nature of life, which can be both good and evil. To the devout Hindu she represents the presence of death in life.

Perhaps the American people have begun to forget that life is both bitter and sweet, both secure and dangerous. Perhaps this explains why they react to the dangers of today's world, which are real and inescapable, in a variety of hysterical ways.

Dr. Caldwell, acting associate commissioner, Bureau of International Education, Office of Education, came to the Office in 1952 from the International Educational Exchange Service of the Department of State, where he had been since 1946. He has taught both in the United States and in several Chinese universities. Of his many articles for professional and popular journals, most reflect his interest in education as a tool of national and international policy. The article above is adapted from a speech he gave at a conference of the Association for Childhood Education International, in Indianapolis, April 23.

Some try to turn their backs on reality on the assumption that the nasty thing will go away if it is ignored. Others urge us to spend an ever increasing proportion of our substance on weapons, even though these may become obsolete as fast as they are made. I do not question that weapons are necessary; but I maintain that the only true defense is an inward defense. The only safety today for the individual American, and for each of our neighbors everywhere, is one that is built *within himself* through the home, through religion, and through the school. We need a new kind of education for today's children, one which will equip tomorrow's adults not only to understand their world but to live and work courageously in it.

THERE IS NO ESCAPING the realities of the world, and educators must face them if they are to plan a better education for our children. Among the realities of our times are these:

1. *The existence of tremendous new physical powers.* Some of these powers have been turned to destructive purposes: All people now live within the range of potentially hostile artillery. It is true, however, that the new powers can create as well as destroy. The powers are not in themselves bad; they become evil only if used for evil purposes.

2. *The struggle between the communist and the noncommunist worlds.* This struggle, however, is becoming more and more intellectual and cultural rather than physical: both sides realize that to engage in physical struggle would be suicide.

3. *The death of colonialism.* Scores of new nations have been born in the past decade. They have joined the society of nations, and whatever affects them affects all nations. These new nations are engaged in a life-and-death struggle against hunger, disease, and ignorance. Whereas in Western Europe and most of the United States the average individual consumes about 3,500 calories a day, in many of the new countries many people live on a starvation ration of between 1,000 and 1,500 calories.

There are two basic answers to the struggle for more food and better health: education and idealism. Our friends desperately need the skills required to develop their resources and to build a better life, but just as desperately they need to be properly motivated. This we can help them to be only if we share with them our best ideals while we share with them our skills.

4. *The need for a new unity of mankind.* Lincoln once said that a house divided cannot stand. The same statement appears repeatedly in communist propaganda, where it means that a world only partly communist cannot survive, that it must become completely communist. The fallacy in the communist idea of unity is that it must be imposed upon the world. Real unity is based on equal rights and equal dignity for all: it cannot be imposed from without; it must grow from within.

What do all these realities mean for the education of young children today?

They mean, first, that the school today is more important than it has ever been before. The world moves too fast for many parents to keep up with their responsibilities, and the school is faced, to an increasing degree, with responsibilities properly parental. Among them are the giving of advice and encouragement to young people in their choice of a career, and helping them to develop the right ideas about humanity and its problems.

They mean that the school must accentuate the positive at the same time that it accepts the facts that evil exists and that man is capable of destroying himself. Education today must strengthen man's will and increase his capacity to create and to survive. It can do this best if the school constantly takes a positive approach to the basic problems of modern society.

They mean that the school must prepare today's children to move into the new frontiers which they cannot evade. There are many such frontiers, but the most important and the most demanding are in human relations, in the natural sciences, and last but not least, in the development of a sensitive spiritual awareness.

They mean that the school will have to change its curriculum to reflect the changes taking place in the world. American children today are for the most part led to think that only North America and Europe are important. But this is not true. Any American child today may reasonably expect to spend some part of his life in either public or private service in South America or Africa or Asia. These continents are winning each day more political and economic power while the power of the old world wanes; and our future depends on our ability to deal realistically and justly with the peoples of the emerging nations. At home we need enlightened citizens who will not be misled by propaganda and who will vote wisely on foreign issues.

The new world-based curriculum will emphasize five areas:

The social sciences. These will become the foundation of an improved awareness, in Americans, not only of their own history and culture, but also of the history and culture of the surrounding world and its many peoples.

Communication. The ability to communicate with others will inevitably grow more important. It will require not only the ability to use one's own language, but the ability to use another language as well. It is not enough to expect others to speak to us in English. True communication is a two-way street.

Ideals of American civilization. A study of the fundamental ideals of American civilization is not easy to define: the ideals cut across the boundaries of subject matter. Each American child should be aware of the fact that he is part of a continuing revolution which did not cease at the end of the Revolutionary War or at any subsequent date.

Natural science. An introduction to the principles of natural science must come earlier in a child's life than it traditionally has in American education, and in a more intense form. The reason is simple: natural science is today the foundation of physical power, and without physical power we may not survive.

Humanities and the fine arts. There must be a new emphasis on the humanities and the fine arts, partly to compensate for the inevitable emphasis on natural science. One of the basic problems of American education will be to maintain our human tradition while building into our people the capacity and the courage to survive in an ever more dangerous and difficult world. It is even more important to train our children to be human than to make them into scientists and soldiers.

If we can help our children to acquire the faith, the courage, the skills, and the wisdom they will need for tomorrow, the time may soon come when all men will live as one united family. Serenity in the face of danger, resourcefulness in the face of opportunity, charity in the face of immense complexities—all these are the marks of an educated man. Let us make sure that they are the marks of the American of tomorrow.

SCHOOL BONDS—

Sales, Interest Rates, et cetera

A monthly report by ELMER C. DEERING, *Office of Education specialist on financing school facilities.*

THE DOWNWARD TREND in interest rates on bonds for public school purposes, which began in October 1961 and continued uninterrupted through February, resumed in April, as the latest figures show. After an increase in March of 9 basis points, the average rate dropped to 2.93 percent—the lowest point since May 1958, when it was 2.75 percent.

The low average in April was due largely to six sales at unusually low rates—$25 million at 2.578 percent in New York City, $16.5 million at 2.830 in Chicago, $10 million at 2.913 in Shelby County, Tenn., $8 million at 2.819 in St. Louis, $6.65 million at 2.653 in Oklahoma City, and $6 million at 2.449 in Salt Lake City.

A comparison of the average rates from September through April of the current school year with the rates in corresponding months last year provides some perspective on the recent changes:

Month	*1960–61*	*1961–62*
September	3.51	3.51
October	3.63	3.45
November	3.44	3.43
December	3.51	3.40
January	3.52	3.22
February	3.27	3.12
March	3.46	3.21
April	3.43	2.93

Both years began with precisely the same interest rate, and for both years February was the low point; but the similarity ends there.

Average net interest cost of Moody-rated bonds sold on the primary market for public school purposes, April 1961–April 1962, by rating

Period	Aaa	Aa	A	Baa	Ba	All rated bonds
1959–60	3.26	3.63	3.77	4.21	4.55	3.84
1960–61	2.82	3.34	3.43	3.75	3.97	3.48
1961						
April	.....	3.20	3.39	3.75	4.28	3.45
May	2.92	3.22	3.31	3.70	4.06	3.38
June	3.01	3.19	3.44	3.65	4.15	3.47
July	2.97	3.25	3.38	3.73	4.21	3.41
August	2.93	3.65	3.47	3.81	4.25	3.59
September	3.08	3.25	3.52	3.75	.....	3.51
October	.....	3.39	3.29	3.70	4.17	3.45
November	.....	3.16	3.37	3.75	3.89	3.43
December	2.97	3.25	3.37	3.76	4.15	3.40
1962						
January	3.02	3.13	3.19	3.55	.....	3.22
February	2.76	3.00	3.15	3.38	3.94	3.12
March	2.80	3.01	3.08	3.33	3.89	3.21
April	2.56	2.84	2.84	3.34	3.55	2.93

Source: Investment Bankers Association and The Daily Bond Buyer, which report with a Moody rating all sales by issuing agencies (school districts, States, counties, cities, towns, townships, and schoolbuilding holding companies) that had more than $600,000 worth of bonds outstanding at the time of sale—in other words, 75–80 percent of all sales. Each month the Office of Education adjusts the figures to include sales reported too late for inclusion in the month preceding.

AD Minutes Briefly noted--- for the busy School Administrator

Material for this department is prepared by the staff of the School Administration Branch, Division of State and Local School Systems.

For safer school buses. The Interim Committee on School Transportation, meeting recently in Washington, developed suggestions and recommendations for State departments of education to make school bus riding safer and more efficient. The Committee, an advisory group sponsored by the Council of Chief State School Officers, the U.S. Office of Education, and other interested groups, reviews developments in school bus design, selection and instruction of drivers, school bus operation, and related matters.

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Better education for Indians. New Mexico has been taking stock of its education programs for young Indian men and women. Last May, the State department of education and the State university called together officials of the Bureau of Indian Affairs, schools, colleges, and universities; representatives of foundations, scholarship services, and other organizations; and tribal leaders to talk about Indian education. Either in workshops or group meetings, the conferees talked about opportunities for scholarships and for student employment, guidance and counseling, clubs and recreation, current problems, and future programs.

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Regional school finance study. Approximately 150 persons from all over New England attended a regional conference on school finance, held in Boston in January and sponsored by the National Education Association and the six New England Teachers Associations. Too much reliance, the delegates said, is placed on the property tax for school support and State aid is too low. They anticipate great trouble in meeting school expenses out of State taxes by the end of the 60's.

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Dropouts in Arkansas. In 1940–41 approximately 81,000 children were enrolled in the first grade in Arkansas public schools; in 1951–52 only 22 percent of them were graduated; the rest—more than 63,000 boys and girls—had dropped out along the way. The record, 10 years later, was better, but not good. Only 60 percent of the 40,000 pupils who were in the fifth grade in 1953–54 were graduated in 1960–61. Now the State department of education is gathering its forces to improve the record. Staff members have recommended to local schools a number of measures designed to increase the schools' holding power, and to prepare young people for useful employment.

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Summer schools in Iowa. Over 66 percent of the approved 4-year public high school districts in Iowa had summer school programs in 1961 as compared with 50 percent in 1960 and 32 in 1959. In 1961, summer programs enrolled a total of 92,968 pupils—58,785 elementary, 33,811 secondary, and 372 adults. Only 3 counties containing 10 high school districts did not have summer school programs. The 344 high school districts offering summer school programs enrolled more than 83 percent of the pupils during the regular school year (1961–62). Approximately 90 percent of the school districts financed their summer programs entirely or in part from public school funds, and only 6.7 percent financed their programs entirely from tuition or fees.

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Classes for parents. In a depressed neighborhood in Chicago, a home economist is working with groups of parents to help them become more efficient homemakers. The parents themselves selected the subjects for study: home sewing, meal planning and nutrition, family budgeting, child care and development, and home reading dealing with family living. The program is part of a Chicago project sponsored by the Ford Foundation.

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All-day neighborhood schools. In New York City, all-day neighborhood schools are now operating in 12 elementary schools to demonstrate a workable plan for extending the school day and to emphasize what the school can do to create a wholesome environment for children in high-delinquency, deprived neighborhoods. The heart of the program is the after-school group which permits the child to operate under supervision until 5 o'clock. Teachers who supervise the after-school program work a regular number of hours, but come in later in the day in order to stay until 5 p.m. In addition to their other duties, they work with the regular daytime classroom teachers. The program utilizes volunteers; each school has a local citizens' committee which supports the program in the neighborhood.

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Correction. Burton W. Kreitlow, professor of education at the University of Wisconsin, is conducting the 17-year study on education in centralized rural districts that was erroneously credited to the University of Michigan in the January–February *Ad-Minutes*. The study is partly supported by funds from the Office of Education's cooperative research program.

ALBERT ALFORD

Nonproperty taxation and the schools

OUR NATIONAL, State, and local governments—particularly the last two—have, in the past decade, been on a great quest for "new" sources of revenue. By new I do not mean a "discovery" affecting the broad field of taxation but a new source of income for the particular government concerned. These efforts are not likely to result in any important "discoveries" of really new sources of tax revenue. Widespread adoption of income, sales (general and selective), and property taxes has singled out virtually all sources of wealth for taxation. The search for "new" sources centers on the rate of taxation and the techniques for obtaining greater compliance and yield from present taxes, as well as on the applicability of a particular tax to a particular area. The method of collecting income tax by withholding income at the source has been particularly fruitful, and the use of electronic processing methods in the auditing of returns may offer substantial reward. Improved auditing techniques for sales tax returns can increase yields, and even the property tax may be subject to modern methods of assessment and billing—methods that can improve its yields or, at least, make the tax more acceptable to the public. This is the type of "discovery" which is most likely to prove fruitful in the future and not the discovery, for example, that golf balls can be taxed to yield "X" dollars with a minimum of public protest.

Special taxes on small segments of wealth and the pressure for exemptions from the broad-based taxes have given the United States a tax system of great complexity. While taxpayer and legislator alike continually express concern over the equity of various taxes, it is extremely difficult to measure the equity of any single tax divorced from the overall tax program. One of the great "discoveries" in the future may be a highly simplified and comprehensive tax program based on presently taxed sources of wealth which will meet the needs for equity and flexibility demanded by the activities of a modern government. Since suggestions for such tax programs, however, have met with little, if any, success, the country must adapt as well as it can to the present system.

The general property tax of the 19th century was probably as close to a "single tax" as we have ever come, but, in this century, the trend has been away from taxation of property to the taxation of income and expenditures, particularly at the Federal and State levels. Statistics show that it is mainly local governments that use the property tax. From 1902 to 1960 the property tax declined from 51.4 percent of all taxes to 14.5 percent, from 82.1 percent of all State and local taxes to 45.5 percent, but only from 88.6 percent of all local taxes to 87.4 percent.[1] Not only is the property tax largely confined to local governments, but even here there has been a tremendous shift in the use made of revenue from it. Independent school districts derive over 98 percent of their income from the property tax, a figure which shows that it is the school unit of local government which largely uses this tax. There has been considerable discussion of a possible shift away from the property tax, particularly when it has been necessary to increase sharply the tax rate, but few changes have been made.

Actually, sources other than property are bearing more and more of total school expenditures, largely because of greater State participation in the financing of schools. State support of the schools has averaged 40 percent for the last several years, and most State funds come from nonproperty sources. But the fact that State support of the schools has stabilized means that there has been little or no recent relief extended to the property tax. Increasing school expenditures fall proportionately on the property tax, and as the rate of the tax increases, interest in nonproperty sources may increase. Relief may come

Dr. Alford, specialist in public finance and school support, has been with the Office of Education 2 years this month. Before coming to the Office he taught political science at the University of Maryland and was a consultant to several committees and commissions examining tax structure and revenue proposals at State and local levels.

[1] These figures are based on the two following publications of the U.S. Bureau of the Census: *U.S. Census of Governments:* 1957, vol. IV, No. 3, *Historical Summary of Governmental Finances in the United States, U.S. Government Printing Office,* Washington, D.C., 1959; and *Governmental Finances in 1960,* G–GF60–No 2, Sept. 19, 1961.

through increased State aid or authority to levy local nonproperty taxes for schools.

Should the school districts follow the trend away from the property tax? What are the advantages and disadvantages of a shift in the direction of more local nonproperty taxes for schools?

General advantages and disadvantages

In many cases the answer to the question of whether the schools should follow other local governments in the direction of greater use of nonproperty sources will come by default or by a negative rather than a positive choice. In most States where the property tax burden is high, school authorities generally prefer increased State aid. If the property tax burden is not uniformly high throughout the State, the State government may prefer to give a local government authority to levy nonproperty taxes rather than to make general appropriations. Emphasis on local autonomy, reluctance to levy a statewide tax, or other political reasons may also result in a determination not to increase State aid. Under these circumstances the choice of a locally administered nonproperty tax for schools may be the only remaining alternative.

Assuming, however, that there is a positive choice, what are the advantages and disadvantages of nonproperty taxes for local school districts? Summarized briefly, the advantages of local nonproperty taxation may be these: (1) It allows those areas that need property tax relief to obtain it without taxing other areas, (2) its rates are adjustable to local needs, and (3) its use strengthens the local autonomy of the schools. The disadvantages include these: (1) The possibility of preempting the tax base and making it difficult to establish or expand State-aid programs, (2) the administrative costs may prove too large for efficient use by many school districts, and (3) a shift to other sources will not substitute completely for the property tax and may impede desirable reforms and improvements in that tax. These, however, are the advantages and disadvantages of *local* nonproperty taxes, not of nonproperty taxes in general. Any specific nonproperty tax may have other advantages and disadvantages. Unless the *general* advantages outweigh the disadvantages in a particular school district, there is no need to be concerned with the specific merits of or objections to a particular tax.

Nonproperty categories

There are a number of categories into which taxes may be placed. All taxes, for example, can be put into the three categories of income, consumption, and property. The first two—both nonproperty taxes—can be broken down into six categories, more useful to our purpose: Income, general sales, special or selective sales, per capita, licenses and fees, and "pseudo-property."[2] Let us examine briefly each of the categories to see what they include and how widely they are used.

Income taxation has taken three forms at the local level. The most popular of these is a wage or earnings tax, a flat rate tax on wages, salaries, and net business and professional unincorporated income with few if any exemptions. Because there are so few exemptions, this tax gives a high yield at a relatively low rate. Withholding arrangements simplify administration for the government, but such a tax may be costly to businesses when they must pay multiple local taxes at different rates. A second form of this tax is the net income tax. This tax, too, is broad-based, may be flat rate or progressive, and can apply to all business as well as personal income. A third form of this tax is the occupation license tax, which has been used, particularly in Kentucky.[3] Legally it is a license, but since it is based on the income value of an occupation, actually it is an income tax.

Kentucky, Ohio, and Pennsylvania use local income taxes extensively, but only in Pennsylvania is revenue from these taxes available to school districts, and some 800 districts use them at rates of 1 percent or less.[4]

General sales taxes are applied broadly to all purchases of goods and services except as specifically exempted by law. The general sales tax is generally applied to the consumer on the basis of individual sales, but the government may collect in a more simplified way than collecting directly from the taxpayer; for example, it may use gross

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[2] This list does not include all nonproperty revenue sources, of course. Utility revenue, in particular the profit, is a source of revenue to many local governments, but would not apply to schools except in dependent school districts where such profits go into the general local treasury. Service charges—tuition payments and fees for use of school facilities—another nonproperty source of income for the schools, represent only a minor source and are not normally considered as a major area for seeking new funds. Educational services under our public school system do not operate on a benefit theory. Charges on the basis of benefits received may be made for many local services, but any system of charges applied broadly to schools would soon restrict attendance to an economic elite. Income from fines and forfeitures may also go into school funds in some States, but they are also a minor source of income.

[3] Not to be confused with the occupation tax used in Pennsylvania as discussed in this article.

[4] Where a local nonproperty tax is used by the local government supporting the schools, fiscally dependent school systems may be considered as benefiting by such taxation. In practice, however, the schools are generally considered to be using the property tax with the nonproperty taxes going for other governmental services. The dependence of the schools on the property tax is much the same psychologically in dependent school systems as it actually is in independent school districts. In many dependent school systems a property-tax rate is assigned to schools to supply their needs each year.

receipts as a measure of the volume of sales. General sales taxation has been used only slightly at the local level for school purposes. Counties and cities have shared part of their sales tax or used it all for schools in Alabama and New York. Several school districts in Alaska have imposed a 1-percent sales tax. Local sales taxes have been used most widely in California and Illinois where the State allows a tax supplement to the State sales tax, but this income is not used for schools.

Special or selective sales taxes differ from general sales taxes in that they are applied to particular items or services, such as gasoline, beer, hotel rooms, and tobacco. A number of counties and cities in Alabama, for instance, have selective sales taxes for school revenue, particularly taxes on beer and cigarettes. City school districts in New York State may impose consumer utility taxes up to a maximum rate of 3 percent. Local general sales taxes are prohibited in Pennsylvania, but school districts have taxed a variety of activities, services, or items, including amusements, deed transfers, and mechanical devices. Throughout the States local governments other than school districts have, over the years, levied a wide variety of special sales taxes leaving relatively few items untouched.

Selective sales taxes have a political advantage in that the public is generally less opposed to a tax on a single item than to a tax affecting everyone. In addition, where moral or health issues may be raised, as in the case of liquor and tobacco, reasons other than revenue needs may support the tax. Because collection is confined to certain dealers or distributors, the tax is easier to enforce than a general sales tax. A tax applied to single items generally sold, however, is more difficult to enforce.

Per capita or poll taxes are based upon the assumption that each adult citizen should make a minimum contribution to the expense of government. They are the most widely used nonproperty taxes for schools. With a few exceptions, these taxes are of a low rate, poorly enforced, and produce small amounts of money. In 1957 school districts in eight States used this form of nonproperty tax. Where the rate is substantial ($10 or more) and the tax enforcement rigid, these taxes have produced sizable amounts of income. But the tying of the poll tax to the voting privilege in some States has placed a stigma on it which may limit its more extensive use.

Licenses and fees represent a substantial amount of revenue for general local governments, especially municipalities, but are insignificant sources of income for schools. Because there is such a variety of them and because they are often related to regulation, licenses and fees are more appropriate for general government. In some instances, however, when the license fee or tax is based on gross receipts or sales, it is primarily designed to bring in revenue. Local governments have tended to levy license requirements more for revenue than regulation in recent years. In any case, licenses and fees are a source of income for schools in only a few States. Dog license fees in Kansas and South Dakota and business license fees in Nebraska and New Mexico go to schools.

"Pseudo-property" taxes are taxes which by legal definition are not property taxes but which border closely on property taxation. Trailers or mobile homes, for example, may be taxed as property in some States and on a special basis in others through flat rates or rates not directly related to the value of the trailer. Many Pennsylvania school districts levy an occupation tax based on an assessment of the value of a person's occupation. The district applies a millage levy, not a general property levy, to the valuation of the occupation. In other words, the definition of property has been broadened to include such a category and the procedure of the property tax followed. Actually, an occupation tax based on a broad definition of intangible personal property is of long standing in Pennsylvania, but the occupation tax discussed here is levied under the authority of a general law (Public Law 481) and is not considered a property tax.

Bases for choice

To make a choice among the types of nonproperty taxes, a school district must first consider the constitutional and legal prohibitions its State imposes in regard to taxation and the authority it grants to other governments to levy taxes, as well as the practical applicability of the tax to its particular district. State regulations reflect public attitudes toward certain taxes *per se* and the balance of taxing authority between the State and local governments. The applicability of the tax depends on the size and economic conditions of a community, the equity of the tax, and the competition among taxes. After eliminating those taxes that are unconstitutional, illegal, or preemptive, the school district must examine those remaining on the basis of yield, equity, and impact.

Yield refers to the amount of revenue which can be expected from the tax at a normal rate, and the rate will depend on the economic structure of the community. The cost of administering the tax must be taken into account to obtain the *net* yield.

Equity in taxation is an ideal which, though widely discussed, may evoke considerable disagreement and is difficult to determine. Though a principle of justice is involved, the context in which the tax is examined may change the picture. A single tax taken alone may bring about one reaction, while the same tax taken in the context of the total tax program may bring about another. For example, some people consider the sales tax inequitable

because it is regressive, that is, it is likely to take a higher percentage of total income from the poor than the wealthy. Such people may consider the progressive income tax equitable for the opposite reasons. For those who believe that the tax burden should be proportional to income or consumption and not based on ability to pay, the sales tax and flat-rate income tax meet criteria of equity. But when the single tax is considered as part of the total tax program, the picture may change. With a sharply progressive Federal income tax and perhaps a moderately progressive State income tax, the sales tax becomes a balancing device which may still leave the total tax system progressive and, therefore, equitable to those who insist on progressive taxes.

Questions of equity may take other forms, of course. If some income group, profession, or product is singled out for heavy or unusual taxation, public protests of injustice or inequity may and probably will follow. The political and social makeup of a community will determine what it considers just in these cases. Public reaction to the taxation of tobacco products, alcoholic beverages, and gasoline are examples of this.

These illustrations show that weighing the equity of a tax is important, but that taxes cannot be labeled automatically equitable or inequitable out of the context of their economic, political, and social setting.

Impact refers in this article to the economic effect which a tax may have upon a community. It is frequently difficult to separate fact from fancy where impact is concerned. Those who will be affected by a tax are inclined to predict the worst. The fact that these fears are usually overstated does not mean that they should not be considered.[5] Merchants in one jurisdiction may be hurt by competition from a nearby jurisdiction separated only by an artificial governmental boundary line when one is taxed and the other is not.

The future

In considering taxation for school districts, we are considering governmental units which range in population from fewer than 10 to several million. In economic structure they range from one-crop agricultural areas to highly diversified urban industrial areas. The range in wealth per child is tremendous. While the same is true for all local governments, only school districts must provide expensive services under all conditions.

Even assuming that reorganization would remove the lower extremes of the broad picture, the range and variation which would remain would prohibit any single prescription for financing school districts through nonproperty taxation. A brief article such as this can only deal with general aspects and problems. Local non-

[5] Matters affecting the economic life of the community cannot be taken lightly. There is little likelihood that taxes adversely affecting the economy will slip by unnoticed since economic interests are acutely aware of such situations. The real problem will be, as in the case of equity, in determining what the real impact is and separating fact from fiction or emotional reaction.

Federal aid

Some questions and answers

EDUCATIONAL TELEVISION was 10 years old in April. In the same month as its anniversary—by coincidence—the Congress of the United States gave it a vote of confidence by passing an act to help communities obtain educational television facilities. On May 1 President Kennedy signed the act into law (Public Law 87–447).

The act is, of course, much more than a vote of confidence in an idea. The Congress sees it as a means of helping to expedite the construction of new educational television broadcast facilities for schools, colleges, and nonprofit community organizations. It regards the building of these stations as urgent. The conference report prepared by the Managers on the Part of the House, the committee which ironed out differences between the bills passed by the two houses, says that the "time has arrived to take prompt action to get the needed additional educational television stations on the air as promptly as possible."

In the last several years, according to the conference report, the Nation's need for educational television stations has been surveyed and found to be a minimum of 1,197. In December 1961 the Educational Media Study Panel, in a report to the Commissioner of Education, said that there were about 60 educational broadcasting stations on the air "serving schools by day and homes by night." In addition, the panel estimated that between 200 and 300 closed-circuit systems were at work in local public schools, school districts, colleges, and universities, and that steps were being taken which would lead to at least 40 new broadcast stations.[1]

School Life has prepared these questions and answers on Public Law 87–447 by way of clarification and explanation.

1. What is the purpose of Public Law 87–447?

The purpose of Public Law 87–447 is "to assist

[1] *A National Policy for Education Television: Report and Recommendations.* The panel, appointed by the Commissioner, was made up of representatives of business, industry, and education. See *School Life*, March 1962, for a resume of the recommendations of the panel.

property taxation may be a necessary or desirable alternative in future years for many school districts. It would be well for all concerned to be alert to the advantages and pitfalls of such applications to their particular jurisdiction before desperation forces hasty or unwise action.

for educational television

on Public Law 87–447

(through matching grants) in the construction of educational television broadcasting facilities."

2. What funds does the law make available for this program?

The Congress authorized the appropriation of $32 million for a 5-year program, beginning with the fiscal year ending June 30, 1963.

3. For what may a grant be used?

A grant may be used to acquire and install transmission apparatus, including towers, microwave equipment, boosters, translators, repeaters, mobile equipment, and video-recording equipment necessary for television broadcasting.

4. Does this mean that a grant may not be used to provide for station buildings?

That is correct. A grant cannot be used for the construction or repair of studios and structures to house broadcasting equipment.

5. Are there other restrictions on what the funds may purchase?

The law says that only 15 percent of a grant may be used to acquire and install microwave equipment, boosters, translators, and repeaters to connect one or more broadcasting stations.

6. What is the reason for this restriction?

According to the conference report prepared by the Managers on the Part of the House, the intent of the law is to put *new* educational television broadcasting stations on the air. The interconnecting of stations is incidental to the primary purpose of the law.

7. Who may apply for a grant?

Applications will be accepted from these organizations and agencies:

An agency or officer responsible for the supervision of public elementary or secondary education or public higher education within a State or one of its political subdivisions.

The State educational television agency.

A college or university supported in whole or in part from tax revenue.

A nonprofit foundation, corporation, or association whose purpose is to encourage educational television broadcasting and who is eligible for a noncommercial license from the Federal Communications Commission.

8. What does the term "State" include?

The term "State" includes the 50 States plus the District of Columbia and the Commonwealth of Puerto Rico.

9. What does the term "State educational television agency" mean?

The term "State educational television agency" means a board or commission established by State law to promote educational television within a State; a board or commission appointed by the Governor of a State for such a purpose; or a State officer or agency responsible for public elementary, secondary, or higher education whom the governor has put in charge of educational television.

10. What does the law mean by a "nonprofit" foundation, corporation, or association?

The laws says that the term "nonprofit" "as applied to any foundation, corporation, or association, means a foundation, corporation, or association, no part of the net earnings of which inures, or may lawfully inure, to the benefit of any private shareholder or individual."

11. Is there a ceiling on the amount of funds a State may receive?

No State may receive a total of more than $1 million. However, only $32 million is authorized for 50 States, the District of Columbia, and the Commonwealth of Puerto Rico. It is obvious, therefore, that most States will receive less than the maximum amount allowable.

12. How should applications be made?

Application forms will be provided as soon as funds are available to implement the program. The forms and instructions will stipulate the information required and procedures for submitting an application, including mailing instructions.

13. In general, what information will be required in an application for a grant?

Part of the answer to this question must wait until the Secretary has approved regulations for the act, but, in general, an application must state the cost of the project and the amount of Federal funds requested and must give assurance that (1) the applicant is eligible for a grant (see question 7), (2) he will retain control of the station's operation, (3) local funds are available to build, operate, and maintain the facility, and (4) the facility will be used for educational television.

14. Must the States conduct surveys of their needs before applications can be filed?

No, the law does not require State surveys.

15. Does this mean a State should not conduct a survey?

Certainly not. A State may conduct a survey if it desires. Many States have already conducted studies, some of them are planning to bring their older surveys up to date in light of the criteria which Congress has established in P.L. 87–447. A number of States are rushing new surveys to completion, and others are now considering undertaking surveys in order to prepare the best proposals possible.

16. Must the applicant work through the State educational television agency?

He may, but he is not required to.

17. Does this mean that the State educational television agency will not be required to approve or disapprove applications?

That is correct; the State educational television agency will not be required to approve or disapprove applications.

18. May the State agency be bypassed entirely?

No. The law requires the applicant to notify his State educational television agency when he makes an application and the Secretary to notify the agency of the disposition he has made of the application.

19. What is the reason for this requirement since the agency will have no power to approve or disapprove applications?

The law says "to assure proper coordination of construction of educational television broadcasting facilities within each State which has established a State educational television agency, each applicant . . . shall notify such agency of each application . . . which is submitted by it to the Secretary, and the Secretary shall advise such agency with respect to the disposition of each application."

20. What criteria will the Secretary use in weighing applications for grants?

The Secretary will determine whether to grant a request on the basis of criteria designed to "achieve (1) prompt and effective use of all educational television channels remaining available, (2) equitable geographical distribution of educational television broadcasting facilities throughout the States, and (3) provision of educational television broadcasting facilities which will serve the greatest number of persons and serve them in as many areas as possible, and which are adaptable to the broadest educational uses."

21. What does this mean in specific terms?

Specific criteria will be spelled out in the regulations for Public Law 87–447, which the Secretary is now preparing for publication.

22. What percent of the total cost of the project will the Federal Government bear when an application has been approved?

When he has approved a project application the Secretary will make a grant to the applicant of an amount not exceeding 50 percent of what he has determined to be reasonable and necessary. He may also pay as a part of the project grant up to 25 percent of the cost of an existing educational television broadcasting facility owned by the applicant at the time of application but the total project grant may not exceed 75 percent of the total cost of the project.

23. Does the law make any provision for the Federal Government to recover its funds if the applicant does not live up to the agreement?

Yes. The law says that if, within 10 years, the applicant ceases to be a qualified applicant or if the facility is not used for education the Government can recover its funds.

24. How will the grant be paid?

The Secretary, when he has determined the amount of a grant, will pay the applicant in advance or as reimbursement in such installments as he deems consistent with construction progress.

25. What accounting to the Federal Government will those receiving grants have to make?

Every grant recipient must keep accurate records of the expenditures of grant funds. Books and records must be available for audit and examination by the Secretary and the Comptroller General of the United States.

26. Will other Federal agencies help with the program?

The law authorizes the Federal Communications Commission to give the Secretary such assistance as he may need in carrying out the act. The Secretary must provide for consultation and close cooperation with the FCC.

27. Who must take the initiative for a project?

Any qualified applicant may initiate projects. Jurisdictional problems within and between educational agencies, authorities, institutions, and community groups should be worked out at the local and State levels.

28. When will the program be in operation?

Congress must pass supplemental appropriation bills before the program can go into operation. It is expected that these bills will be passed by early fall before the present session of the Congress adjourns.

29. What action has the Secretary taken so far to get the program started?

Preparations for administering the act are moving ahead rapidly. The Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare, has delegated operating responsibility for the program to the U.S. Commissioner of Education. Or-

ganizationally, the Commissioner has placed the program in the Bureau of Educational Assistance Programs, Office of the Associate Commissioner. Authority for policy determinations, policy liaison with Federal Communications Commission and other Federal agencies, and final approval of regulations and applications will be retained by the Secretary.

30. When will the rules and regulations be ready?

It is anticipated that rules and regulations will be ready by the time the funds are appropriated.

C. WALTER STONE

Promise and Problems in Federal Aid for ETV

WHO IN EDUCATION is not taking seriously the resources which modern techniques of communication afford for retooling the American educational enterprise? Many of us hope, by using television, to meet more adequately our responsibilities for basic instruction on all levels, to strengthen vocational retraining efforts, to help reduce illiteracy, and to provide new and extended opportunities for cultural growth for everyone.

The promise seems bright, and Federal aid for educational television will help. But legislation will not solve all of the crises in education, not even those in educational television. The purchase and installation of more tubes, transmitters, and towers will not automatically produce the benefits we expect of educational television unless we move immediately to resolve basic problems.

Federal aid for educational television will, I think, mark the beginning of an era in which the boundary lines of educational responsibility must be redrawn. Under terms of the law, population density and geographic distances and terrain are vital considerations in weighing the merits of requests for Federal dollars. One long-range result of Federal aid may be the "push" it gives to the redefining of boundaries set for educational authorities and services. As more and more educational television programs "spill over" and out of townships, cities, counties, States, and regions, the problem of boundaries will be compounded.

Federal aid will raise the question of the place of the State commission for educational television in the scheme of things. Though applicants for grants will be required to file copies of applications with State educational television commissions—in States where they exist—commissions have no authority under the law to approve applications. The future of State commissions is very much in doubt. In some States such commissions do not represent all State educational authorities or institutions of higher education. Creating commissions imposes a new kind of educational authority on an already complex administration. States need help in deciding what duties educational television authorities should have in relation to the activation of stations with Federal aid.

One of the largest problems is that of manpower: it will be necessary to train the men and women to build and operate even the relatively few new stations that the Federal funds will help build. We must start an all-out recruitment and training program, using existing preservice and inservice programs where good ones exist, but adding a nationwide inventory and talent search, more internship and apprentice training, and perhaps establishing a new type of professional academy.

Not the least of our problems will be finding enough programs and sources of programs to keep the new stations on the air. The budding instructional television library system will help, but something more must be done, for our existing resources are insufficient. We may eventually have to create and support a new agency, perhaps a quasi-governmental agency, whose business will be to produce programs and prepare related materials.

Dr. Stone has been director of the Educational Media Branch of the Office of Education since July 1959. He has taught library science at the University of Illinois and was chief of the audiovisual department and television coordinator of the Detroit Public Library. He has written, edited, and coauthored a number of publications, including a training manual and a State survey, and has written and produced a filmstrip series on adult education and an educational radio and television series. His statement has been adapted from an informal talk he gave to a meeting of the affiliates of the National Educational Television and Radio Center, the programing agency of the National Educational Television network, on April 17, the day before the educational television act cleared the Congress. In July Dr. Stone will leave the Office to become director of library services at the University of Pittsburgh.

Another unanswered question is whether the community will support educational television. As yet we have no guarantee of fiscal support for community television stations.

We have yet to make some vital decisions on the merits of "open" vs. "closed-circuit" operations for extending formal instruction. The answer is not the elimination of one or the other but the best use that can be made of both operations.

While we have given some thought to airplane and satellite distribution of instructional television, we still must design the administrative methods that will make instructional television available to education.

We've only begun to find new methods of research and experimentation in educational use of television which promise to yield valuable guidelines to optimum use of the medium. We must find more.

And there are many other questions to be answered. Some that come to mind are these:

Should we use ultra high frequency or very high frequency channels? Both?

Should educational television be developed primarily as a new and separate social institution like the public library?

Where in the school system or on the campus does instructional television administration belong?

What about rights and royalties for programs?

What labor problems will we have to face?

Are we taking all the care we should to see that educational television never drifts toward becoming another "vast wasteland" of mediocrity and that wherever we find the puerile and sterile we will put it off the air?

Are we taking steps to end the use of educational television simply as a window looking into traditional classrooms?

In short, Federal dollars for educational television will be truly useful only if—and it is quite a big *if*—we move *now* to answer questions like these.

Art facilities—from p. 8

control have recently been improved, officials should carefully consider color, pattern, and quality in selecting materials.

Close-grained hardwood such as good-quality maple makes tough and sturdy floors which can be refinished easily. Well-finished maple does not readily absorb odor or stain and has a nonslippery surface with a high reflection factor. Light-colored rubber, asphalt, or vinyl tile is light reflecting, easily maintained, and less fatiguing on teachers than masonry materials. Speckled or geometrically patterned tile designs show less soil than solid colors, are available in a wide range of hues, and can be chosen to harmonize with the colors of walls, curtains, and furniture.

School architects, paint experts, and local art teachers should cooperatively select the colors for art rooms. There has been a tendency to think of colors in art rooms in terms of warmth or coldness; but for a comfortably lighted classroom where all exposures provide adequate and controlled light, the need for warmth or coolness in colors is not nearly so great. In an art laboratory, where students are working with color, it is advisable not to use large surfaces of bright color which would be reflected on the work areas. The reflection factor of the walls, ceilings, and furniture should be taken into consideration in the effort to provide better lighting as well as pleasant surroundings.

Outdoor classrooms.—More and more outdoor classrooms are becoming a part of the school plant, especially in elementary schools. Although they are more practical in warm than in cold climates, they can be used for art work in all States. They are particularly desirable for painting, sculpturing, woodwork, and modeling and for displaying three-dimensional work. Both inside and outside work areas should be planned as a unit, with large doorways or sliding doors providing easy access to adjacent work areas. Outdoor classrooms can be enclosed by shrubbery or fences to restrict noise and baffle light glare.

In many new buildings each art room has a door leading directly to the grounds and many art rooms in secondary schools have favorable outside views. These are good indications that school boards and administrators are wisely selecting sites and that planners and designers are studiously planning art rooms for beauty and function. These are significant factors in determining the effectiveness of art instruction.

GOOD FACILITIES do not of themselves insure a good art program, but they help make a good program possible. Nor can the community insure a good program by capital outlay for facilities, though it should give its schools the best facilities it can afford. A good art program requires the cooperative planning by the persons who know and understand its needs—art teacher, principals, supervisors, and architects.

OFFICE OF EDUCATION PUBLICATIONS IN 1961–62

This list includes only publications for sale by the Government Printing Office. Free publications will be listed next month.

Adult Education

ADVENTURES IN LEARNING: A STUDY OF HAMILTON'S CENTER FOR OLDER PEOPLE, 20 cents (OE–13016).

LITERACY AND BASIC ELEMENTARY EDUCATION FOR ADULTS: A SELECTED ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY, 55 cents (OE–13017).

STATISTICS OF PUBLIC SCHOOL ADULT EDUCATION, 1958–59, 40 cents (OE–13009).

Biennial Survey of Education in the United States

CHAPTER 4, SECTION II, STATISTICS OF HIGHER EDUCATION, 1957–58: RECEIPTS, EXPENDITURES, AND PROPERTY, $1 (OE–50023–58).

Cooperative Research

COOPERATIVE RESEARCH PROJECTS, FISCAL YEAR 1960, 30 cents (OE–12004–60).

RESEARCH PROJECTS OF THE COOPERATIVE RESEARCH PROGRAM: A FIVE-YEAR SUMMARY, JULY 1, 1956–SEPTEMBER 30, 1961, 45 cents (OE–12015).

COOPERATIVE RESEARCH MONOGRAPHS:

5. INFLUENCE OF VOTER TURNOUT ON SCHOOL BOND AND TAX ELECTIONS, 20 cents (OE–22012).
6. TEACHING BY MACHINE, 65 cents (OE–34010).
7. JOB MOTIVATION AND SATISFACTIONS OF COLLEGE TEACHERS: A STUDY OF FACULTY MEMBERS IN MINNESOTA COLLEGES, 35 cents (OE–53009).
9. TYPES OF TESTS IN PROJECT TALENT: STANDARDIZED APTITUDE AND ACHIEVEMENT TESTS, 25 cents (OE–25014).

Education Directory, 1961–1962

PART 1, STATE GOVERNMENTS, 30 cents (OE–20004–62).

PART 2, PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEMS, $1 (OE–20005–62).

PART 3, HIGHER EDUCATION, 75 cents (OE–50000–62).

PART 4, EDUCATION ASSOCIATIONS, 50 cents (OE–10001–62).

Elementary and Secondary Education

THE BEGINNING TEACHER: STATUS AND CAREER ORIENTATION, $1.25 (OE–23009).

DIRECTORY OF PUBLIC SECONDARY DAY SCHOOLS, 1958–59, $1.25 (OE–20031).

FALL 1961 STATISTICS ON ENROLLMENT, TEACHERS, AND SCHOOL-HOUSING IN FULL-TIME PUBLIC ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY DAY SCHOOLS, 25 cents (OE–20007–61).

GUIDANCE FOR THE UNDERACHIEVER WITH SUPERIOR ABILITY, 35 cents (OE–25021).

HIGH SCHOOL PUPIL PROGRAMS: A PRELIMINARY REPORT, 20 cents (OE–33021).

IMPLICATIONS FOR ELEMENTARY EDUCATION: FOLLOW-UP ON THE 1960 WHITE HOUSE CONFERENCE ON CHILDREN AND YOUTH, 25 cents (OE–20033).

INDUSTRIAL ARTS: AN ANALYSIS OF 39 STATE CURRICULUM GUIDES: 1953–1958, 45 cents (OE–33019).

IMPROVING INDUSTRIAL ARTS TEACHING: A CALL TO THE PROFESSION, 60 cents (OE–33022).

INSERVICE EDUCATION OF HIGH SCHOOL MATHEMATICS TEACHERS: REPORT OF A CONFERENCE, WASHINGTON, MARCH 17–19, 1960, 50 cents (OE–29022).

KEY AUDIOVISUAL PERSONNEL IN PUBLIC SCHOOL AND LIBRARY SYSTEMS IN STATES AND LARGE CITIES AND IN LARGE COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES, 35 cents (OE–34003–61).

THE LEADERSHIP ROLE OF STATE SUPERVISORS OF MATHEMATICS: REPORT OF A CONFERENCE UNDER THE AUSPICES OF THE U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE, WASHINGTON, JUNE 19–23, 1961, 35 cents (OE–29032).

MODERN FOREIGN LANGUAGE IN HIGH SCHOOL: THE LANGUAGE LABORATORY, 35 cents (OE–27013).

ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION OF PUPIL PERSONNEL SERVICE PROGRAMS IN SELECTED SCHOOL SYSTEMS, 30 cents (OE–23014).

PROGRAMS, '62, A GUIDE TO PROGRAMMED INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIAL AVAILABLE TO EDUCATORS BY SEPTEMBER 1962, $1.50 (OE–34015).

SCIENCE EQUIPMENT AND MATERIALS FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS: SUGGESTIONS FOR SUPERVISORS, ADMINISTRATORS, AND TEACHERS, 30 cents (OE–29029).

STATISTICS OF EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES, 1958–59 SERIES, NUMBER 1, PUBLIC SECONDARY SCHOOLS, 40 cents (OE–20032–59).

Higher Education

COOPERATIVE PROJECTS AMONG COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES, 35 cents (OE–50020).

THE CREDIT SYSTEM IN COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES, 20 cents (OE–50021).

DOCTORAL STUDY: FELLOWSHIPS AND CAPACITY OF GRADUATE SCHOOLS, 45 cents (OE–54016).

ENGINEERING ENROLLMENTS AND DEGREES, 1960, 35 cents (OE–54006–60).

ENROLLMENT AND DEGREES IN AGRICULTURE: INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION, SEPTEMBER 1960, 45 cents (OE–56006).

ENROLLMENT FOR ADVANCED DEGREES: FALL 1959, $1 (OE–54019).

FINANCIAL ASSISTANCE FOR COLLEGE STUDENTS: UNDERGRADUATE, $1.25 (OE–55027).

GRADUATE EDUCATION: AN ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY, 60 cents (OE–50022).

HIGHER EDUCATION PLANNING AND MANAGEMENT DATA, 1960–61: SALARIES, TUITION AND FEES, ROOM AND BOARD, 50 cents (OE–53004–61).

OPENING (FALL) ENROLLMENT IN HIGHER EDUCATION, 1960: ANALYTIC REPORT, 35 cents (OE–54007–60).

OPENING (FALL) ENROLLMENT IN HIGHER EDUCATION, 1961: INSTITUTIONAL DATA, 25 cents (OE–54003–61).

PLACEMENT SERVICES FOR PERSONNEL IN HIGHER EDUCATION, 30 cents (OE–53013).

REPORTER: CLEARINGHOUSE OF STUDIES OF HIGHER EDUCATION, SEPTEMBER 1961, NO. 4, 40 cents (OE–50004–3).

STATISTICS OF LAND-GRANT COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES, YEAR ENDED JUNE 30, 1959, $1 (OE–50002–59).

SURVEY OF STATE LEGISLATION RELATING TO HIGHER EDUCATION: JANUARY 1, 1960, TO DECEMBER 31, 1960, 60 cents (OE–50008–60).

THE THREE-TWO PLAN OF ENGINEERING EDUCATION, 20 cents (OE–56005).

TRENDS IN HIGHER EDUCATION PLANNING AND MANAGEMENT DATA, 1957–58 TO 1959–60: AN ANALYSIS OF CHANGES IN SALARIES, TUITION AND FEES, ROOM AND BOARD, 25 cents (OE–53010).

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PUBLICATIONS, 1961–62—*Continued*

International Education

EDUCATIONAL DATA: ARGENTINA, 10 cents (OE–14034–59).

EDUCATION IN AFGHANISTAN, 40 cents (OE–14057).

HIGHER EDUCATION IN THE PHILIPPINES, $1 (OE–14065).

INTERNATIONAL EDUCATIONAL EXCHANGE: A SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY, 50 cents (OE–14066).

PROGRESS OF PUBLIC EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA: 1960–61, $1.25 (OE–10005–61–A).

Library Services

LIBRARY STATISTICS OF COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES, 1960–61: INSTITUTIONAL DATA, 50 cents (OE–15023–61).

THE PUBLIC LIBRARY FOR LIFELONG LEARNING, 20 cents (OE–15025).

National Defense Education Act

GUIDANCE, COUNSELING, AND TESTING PROGRAM EVALUATION: SUGGESTIONS FOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS, TITLE V-A, NATIONAL DEFENSE EDUCATION ACT OF 1958, 30 cents (OE–25020).

MODERN FOREIGN LANGUAGE FELLOWSHIPS, 1962–63, PROGRAM B: LANGUAGES OF LATIN AMERICA, 5 cents (OE–55026).

NATIONAL DEFENSE GRADUATE FELLOWSHIP PROGRAM—A TWO-YEAR REPORT, 15 cents (OE–55020).

REPORT ON THE NATIONAL DEFENSE EDUCATION ACT: FISCAL YEAR ENDING JUNE 30, 1960, 55 cents (OE–10004–60).

RESEARCH AND STUDIES IN MODERN FOREIGN LANGUAGES: PROJECTS INITIATED 1961, 25 cents (OE–12014).

STATE PLANS FOR IMPROVING STATISTICAL SERVICES: SUBMITTED BY STATE EDUCATION AGENCIES UNDER SECTION 1009, TITLE X, PUBLIC LAW 85–864, 65 cents (OE–20028).

STUDENT BORROWERS: THEIR NEEDS AND RESOURCES, 55 cents (OE–55011).

School Finance

BOND SALES FOR PUBLIC SCHOOL PURPOSES, JULY 1, 1960–JUNE 30, 1961, 15 cents (OE–22009–61).

FEDERAL FUNDS FOR EDUCATION, 1958–59 AND 1959–60, $1 (OE–10009).

REVENUE PROGRAMS FOR THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS IN THE UNITED STATES, 1959–60, 55 cents (OE–22013).

TRENDS IN FINANCING PUBLIC EDUCATION, 1929–30 TO 1959–60, $1 (OE–22015).

Special Education

BLIND CHILDREN: DEGREE OF VISION, MODE OF READING, 25 cents (OE–35026).

EDUCATION OF THE SEVERELY RETARDED CHILD: CLASSROOM PROGRAMS, 45 cents (OE–35022).

EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN AND YOUTH: SPECIAL EDUCATION ENROLLMENTS IN PUBLIC DAY SCHOOLS, 15 cents (OE–35019).

SPECIAL EDUCATION ENROLLMENTS IN LOCAL PUBLIC SCHOOLS: A DIRECTORY, 40 cents (OE–35027).

TEACHERS OF CRIPPLED CHILDREN AND TEACHERS OF CHILDREN WITH SPECIAL HEALTH PROBLEMS: A REPORT BASED ON FINDINGS FROM THE STUDY QUALIFICATION AND PREPARATION OF TEACHERS OF EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN, 50 cents (OE–35018).

Vocational Education

AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION: THE PREPARATION OF TEACHERS—A SURVEY OF SUPERVISED TEACHING PROGRAMS IN 1957–58, 30 cents (OE–81008).

CURRICULUM MATERIALS FOR TRADE AND INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION: A LISTING OF MATERIALS AVAILABLE FROM STATE AND LOCAL SOURCES, 30 cents (OE–84023).

EDUCATIONAL VALUES IN CLUB PROGRAMS, 15 cents (OE–82005).

FOOD SERVICE INDUSTRY: TRAINING PROGRAMS AND FACILITIES, 65 cents (OE–82007).

HOME ECONOMICS IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOL, $1.25 (OE–83010).

MANAGEMENT PROBLEMS OF HOMEMAKERS EMPLOYED OUTSIDE THE HOME: RESOURCE MATERIALS FOR TEACHING, 65 cents (OE–83009).

MECHANICAL TECHNOLOGY: DESIGN AND PRODUCTION, 25 cents (OE–80014).

OCCUPATIONS CRITERIA AND PREPARATORY CURRICULUM PATTERNS IN TECHNICAL EDUCATION PROGRAMS, 15 cents (OE–80015).

PEACETIME RADIATION HAZARDS IN THE FIRE SERVICE, BASIC COURSE:
INSTRUCTOR'S GUIDE, 50 cents (OE–84020).
RESOURCE MANUAL, $1 (OE–84019).
STUDY GUIDE, 30 cents (OE–84021).

RESEARCH IN INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION—SUMMARIES OF STUDIES, 1956–59 (WITH SUBJECT INDEX TO STUDIES LISTED IN RESEARCH IN EDUCATION—SUMMARIES OF STUDIES, 1930–55), 60 cents (OE–84016).

STUDIES OF HOME ECONOMICS IN HIGH SCHOOL AND IN ADULT EDUCATION PROGRAMS, 1955–58, 70 cents (OE–83005).

TRAINING FOR STUDENTS IN THE FOOD INDUSTRY, 15 cents (OE–82004).

TRAINING PROGRAMS FOR FISHERY OCCUPATIONS: PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT INFORMATION, 20 cents (OE–84025).

3-DIMENSIONAL TEACHING AIDS FOR TRADE AND INDUSTRIAL INSTRUCTION, 35 cents (OE–84024).

Miscellaneous

ADMINISTRATION OF PUBLIC LAWS 874 AND 815, $1.25 (OE–22003–62).

PUBLICATIONS OF THE OFFICE OF EDUCATION, 1962, 30 cents (OE–11000B).

U.S. GOVERNMENT FILMS FOR PUBLIC EDUCATIONAL USE—1960, $2.75 (OE–34006).

U.S. GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE: 1962